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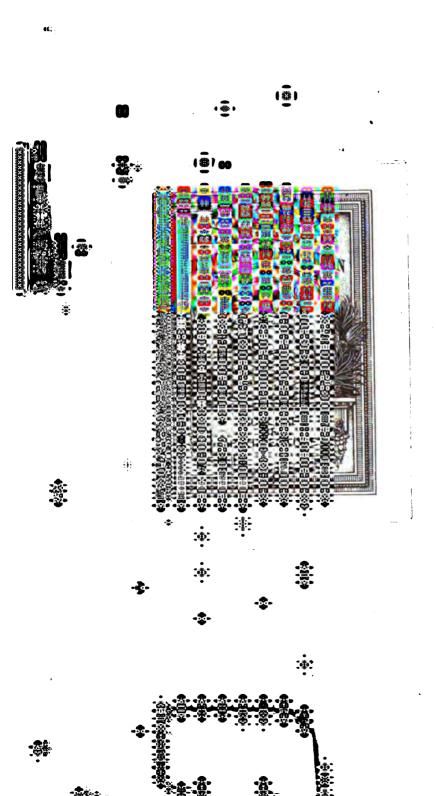
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ORNAMENT& ITS APPLICATION LEWIS F. DAY

COMPANION VOLUME BY THE SAME AUTHOR

PATTERN DESIGN

A BOOK FOR STUDENTS TREATING IN A PRAC-TICAL WAY OF THE ANATOMY, PLANNING, AND EVOLUTION OF REPEATED ORNAMENT

OTHER WORKS

SOME PRINCIPLES OF EVERY-DAY ART. SECOND EDITION.

NATURE IN ORNAMENT.

THIRD EDITION.

WINDOWS: A BOOK ABOUT STAINED GLASS.

SECOND EDITION.

ART IN NEEDLEWORK: A BOOK ABOUT EMBROIDERY.

SECOND EDITION.

ALPHABETS OLD & NEW.

FOURTH IMPRESSION.

LETTERING IN ORNAMENT.

MOOT POINTS: FRIENDLY DISPUTES UPON ART AND INDUSTRY, in conjunction with WALTER CRANE.

ORNA MENTS ITS APPLICATION

ABOOK FOR STUDENTS TREATING IN A PRAC TICAL WAY OF THE RE LATION OF DESIGN TO MATERIAL, TOOLS AND METHODS OF WORK BY

LEWISFDAY

AUTHOR OF PATTERN DE SIGN, NATURE IN ORN AMENT, LETTERING IN ORNAMENT, ALPHABETS, &c

LONDON, B.T.BATSFORD 1904 PRINTED AT THE DARIEN PRESS, EDINBURGH.

PREFACE.

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THIS book is based (like "Pattern Design") upon the foundation of an earlier volume. But, though it covers the ground of "the Application of Ornament," now out of print, it covers a larger area. It is really a new book. Here and there a fragment of the earlier one is incorporated in it; but even that has been shaped anew; for it seemed, looking back upon the work of fifteen years ago, there was little in it which could not be more simply said. The aim of "Ornament and its Application" is throughout practical. It appeals, however, less exclusively than some of my books to students of design; in fact, it is addressed to all who are really interested in ornament. To those not practically acquainted with the subject, it may serve as introduction to that quality of workmanlikeness which to a workman is of the very essence of design.

What I have endeavoured to do is, to show the clear and close relation of design to workmanship; to arouse interest in a side of art which, regarding it in the rather forbidding light of "technique," lovers of art are accustomed to dismiss from their minds as no concern of theirs; and so to open their eyes to what is indeed a never-failing source of interest in art.

Much of what is said will of course be familiar to artists

and workmen practically engaged in design. To them I can only hope to open out perhaps a wider view of the limits of their craft; to show the difference between certain arts, crafts or trades commonly grouped together, and the likeness between others not usually regarded as in any way connected; and, generally, to stimulate workers in the arts to a more comprehensive study of their particular subject.

"Ornament and its Application" will be found to contain a great deal of information at once necessary to the student and interesting to the more general reader; but that is rather by the way. Its purpose is not to cram the student with knowledge, profitable only in proportion as it comes to him through personal experience or individual study; not so much to inform the reader as to stir in him a desire to inform himself; to indicate how much there is in ornament which nearly concerns him, did he but know it; to set him a-thinking and a seeking, and to suggest directions in which search will be If, when all is said, and read, he is still unconvinced that ornament is dependent upon conditions, perhaps purely practical; that the various styles of ornament, "historic," as we call them, grew to a great extent out of such conditions; and that the secret of appropriate design is in cheerful obedience to them, I have failed, so far as he is concerned, in the purpose of my book.

With regard to the illustrations, there remained constantly something of interest to be told about them which was not relevant to the point apropos to which they are referred to in the text. This, whether it refers to the source of the work, its author, date, country, or present whereabouts, its

colour or the detail of its execution, will be found in the comparative and explanatory index of illustrations.

A friendly critic of "Pattern Design" found fault with it that it did not discuss the appropriateness of pattern to the process of its execution. The subject was purposely reserved for the present volume. The relation of ornament to natural form is, again, the subject of a separate treatise.

LEWIS F. DAY.

15 TAVITON STREET, GORDON SQUARE, W.C., 1st September 1904.



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I. INTRODUCTORY.

Ornament inseparable from the thing ornamented—Must be adapted, therefore, to conditions—Historic style the result of workmanlike acknowledgment of this—Necessity, therefore, of studying ancient ways of work—Modern workman must concern himself about other methods than those of his own workshop—Knowledge imperative—Not hurtful to originality but helpful to it.

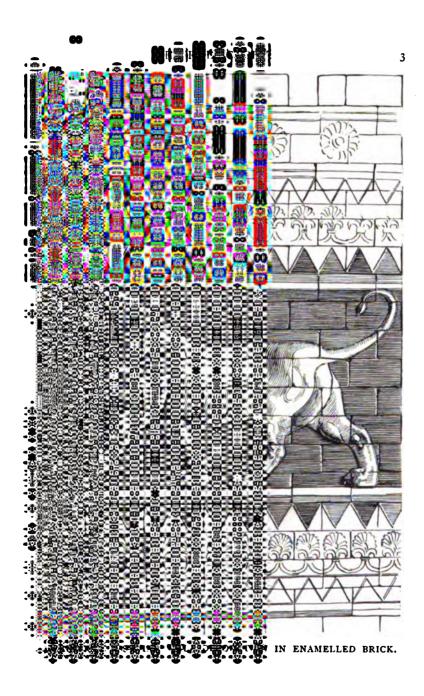
ORNAMENT and its application, says the title of this book; but apart from its application there is no such thing as ornament. It is ornament relatively only to its place and purpose. In theory we may discuss it independently of them, in practice ornament is inseparable from the thing ornamented.

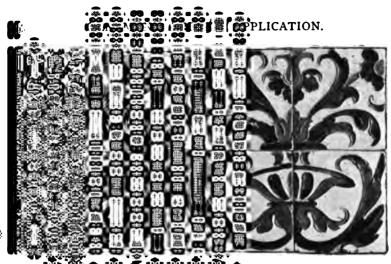
The absolute necessity, therefore, of adapting its design to inevitable conditions is obvious. The equal need of conforming to the more technical conditions imposed upon the workman by his materials and tools and the various ways of working, is not so generally appreciated—and naturally: it takes a workman thoroughly to appreciate that.

Working artists, no matter what their particular work, are aware of the strict subservience of their art to conditions inherent in it. A man may think that workers in some other medium are not so tightly bound; he may resent the conditions under which he works; he is wiser if he bows to them. For the truth is, and the closer we inquire into the matter the clearer it becomes, that they are common to all practical design. The art we most esteem is that of men who cheerfully accepted them. The style we

recognise as "historic" grew out of obedience to them. It is for that reason, and for the light it throws upon technique and its very close connection with design, that some serious inquiry into the evolution of design is a necessary preparation to invention of our own.

There is a point of view from which the consideration of primitive and very likely obsolete ways of working may appear to the progressive mind worse than useless. student of to-day, it is sometimes said, knows already more than enough of the art of other days and other nations; to inquire too curiously into the past is to confuse his mind; he should work by rights in the spirit of his own times. There would be more force in that contention if there were any question of disturbing the simple-minded and wholehearted devotion of modern workers to a modest ideal of craftsmanship such as we may imagine to have been natural to workmen of the Middle Ages. There is no longer any fear of that: we have long since outgrown content with tradition. Whatever advantage it may have been to the old-world artist that the range of his experience was so limited—it certainly set natural and proper bounds to his ambition, bounds which we are not disposed willingly to accept—for good or ill, we have quite given up old precedent for new experience. And, though it were the substance that we have dropped for the shadow, the moment is passed when it is possible to recover what the stream of events has carried out of reach. We have outgrown the The greater our need of knowing. naïveté of innocence. Now that we have no longer trustworthy traditions to go by, we want all the enlightenment tradition can give us, if only that we may choose our own way. In fact, we live in days when it is as necessary that a workman should be acquainted with all manner of methods, as it was once natural for him to be ignorant of all but what was going on about him in the workshop.





COLOURED GLAZES.

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perience assimilated; and, refreshed and strengthened, the artist is more an artist than before.

It is strange that there should be any occasion to insist at this date upon the necessity of knowledge, and to combat the common superstition that the artistic faculty, because it is inborn, is all-sufficient. As if the faculty of learning from what went before, the distinctively human faculty, were not inborn! Whatever our native genius, it needs sustenance. Knowledge can but strengthen an artist in the exercise of his power. As for the theory that it weighs upon originality, we forget how rare a thing originality is—and was, even in the days when knowledge, too, was rare. If ever individuality was extinguished by the breath of education, it must have been at best a feeble flame, hardly worth nursing, certainly not worth keeping alive by screening off all knowledge: it could never have been kindled to much purpose, or it would not have been so soon snuffed out.

An artist is an artist very much because, however well informed, he is himself, and depends in the end upon his own initiative. For all that, sure sign of weakness though it be to rely upon the experience of others, inborn instinct is not all the guide he needs. There are times when he must follow that though all the world said no—but only after weighing what they had to say—and to do that he must not be entirely unequipped with what is common knowledge. He owes that much to his art.

II. CONVENTIONAL TREATMENT.

The necessity of conventional treatment—The meaning of the word—Conventions proper to one craft not the conventions of another—Examples—Conventional as compared with natural—Ornament implies modification of natural form—Conventional treatment in the interests of reticence and self-restraint.

No artist will be found to deny the claims of "treatment" in design: many will protest it ought not to be conventional. I maintain it should.

It seems almost as if the terms employed to throw light upon the subject of art had been devised for the express purpose of making darkness darker. More especially is that so in the case of words which have a general as well as a technical meaning, and are used now in one sense now in the other, or it would be more exact to say another, for the choice of interpretation is not limited to two alternatives.

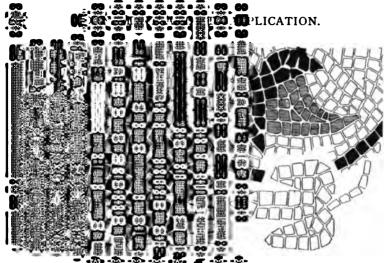
Lame and misleading, however, as the terms may be, without them discussion would progress at a pace so slow that nothing short of "parliamentary" would describe it. The language of all specialists is a sort of jargon, but it helps along discussion. It is the current coin of technical traffic. But we must first know its value; and in the case of words coined, shall we say, in Bohemia, that is not always precisely determined. We may, and must indeed, begin by defining the terms to be used. That is easily said; but the difficulty is not so easily overcome. No sooner do we set out to define than we fall into the use



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MARBLE INLAY, SIENA.

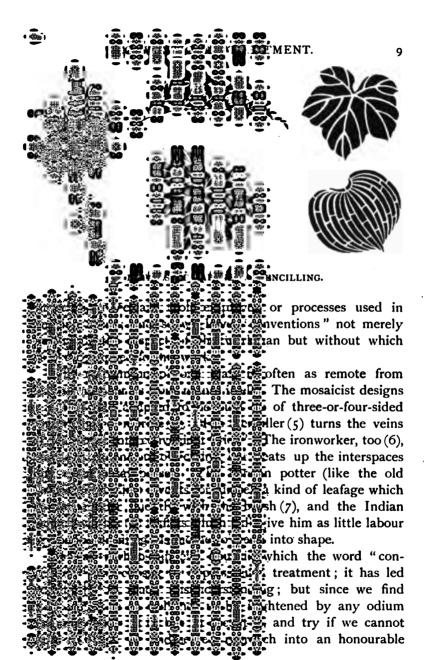


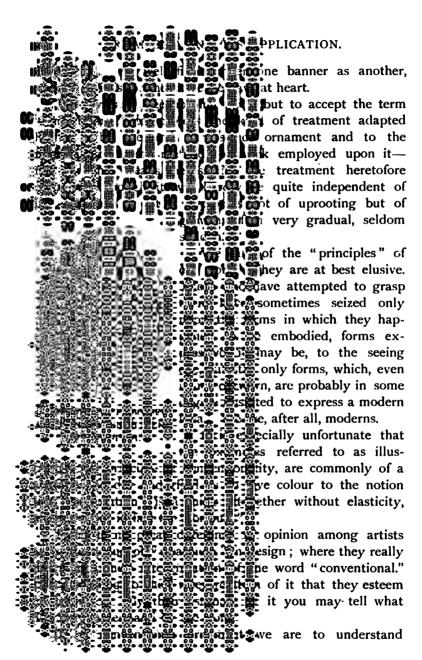
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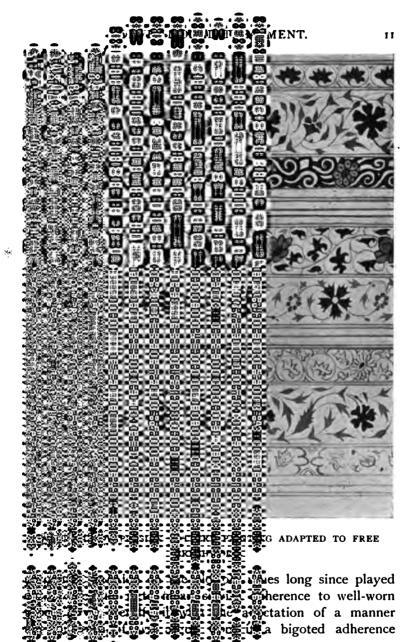
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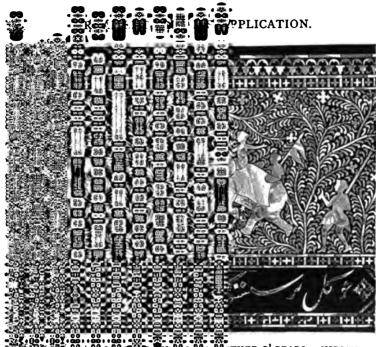








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lessly—copy the natural forms nearest at hand. There is no reason to conclude that natural forms, perfected for a natural purpose, are necessarily and without more ado adapted to the very different purposes of art. We are only following faithfully in the footsteps of Nature when we modify them as our purpose may require.

The very conception of ornament implies modification of the natural forms on which it may have been founded. There is little in nature which is ready made to the hand of the artist. A masterpiece of art is what it is in virtue of a something which was not in the natural motif of the artist, but in his treatment of it. A better word might very likely be found for this apt treatment of ornament, if it were worth while to go out of our way in search of it; but, call it what you will—conventional, ideal, individual—there is in all applied art (in all art for that matter, but it is here only the question of ornament) a something, non-natural it may be (in the sense that it is not borrowed from natural forms), but by no means contrary to nature, and least of all to human nature. Instinctively men shape things to their needs.

Conventionality in ornament is the natural consequence of reticence or self-restraint, of doing, not all that the artist could have done, but just what is called for by the occasion. And, apart from that reserve which is the surest characteristic of artistic strength, restraint is continually imposed upon the designer of ornament by the natural conditions of his work, by the consideration of its place and purpose, by the means employed in doing it, and very especially in view of that repetition which becomes in these days more and more a necessity of its very being.

III. APPLIED ART.

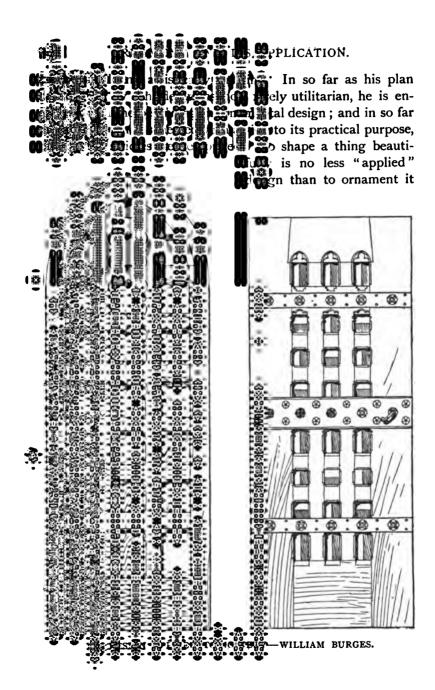
The term "applied" used in reference not to ornament but to the art in it—Ornament properly no after-thought, inherent in the design of the thing ornamented, a consideration from the very beginning of the design —Examples—The test of well-applied ornament, that it does not seem to be added—Applied art always practical art, the solution of a problem—The logic of design.

THE proverbial distinction between use and ornament points to a mistaken but very prevalent idea that ornament is a sort of after-thought—a something added to a thing after it is made. A county councillor, for example, is quite capable of supposing that an engineer has only to plan a convenient and substantial bridge, and it is for the artist afterwards to make it beautiful with architectural trimmings.

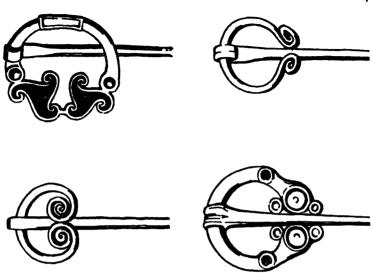
Absurd as this misunderstanding is, it is quite a common one even with persons of intelligence, who are misled, perhaps, by the use of the word "applied" design. It is, however, by no means in the sense of added or superfluous ornament that artists use the term. It is not to the ornament but to the art that they refer as being applied or adapted to some decorative purpose—surely a perfectly natural and clearly comprehensible use of the word.

All art, it has been said, is in some sense applied. That may be so. Still, practically speaking, there is a difference between the art, let us say, of the modern painter or illustrator and the art of the decorator—still more of the designer of things manufactured. To pretend otherwise is to create a confusion in which discussion of the subject becomes hopeless.

DESIGN APPLIED TO LEAD GLAZING.







II, IRISH BROOCHES OF USEFUL FORM.

after it is made. The glazier who proposes to build up his window with small pieces of glass, as in old days he was obliged to do, and as it is still often expedient that he should (9), applies his art to leading them together at once securely and in satisfactory lines, and the result is a pattern. The joiner (or it may be, as in the case here illustrated—10—the architect) who is not content simply to frame his door together strongly, but is careful as to the proportion of its panels, is engaged in applied design before ever he bethinks him of ornamental chamfering. And in softening off the sharp edges of his stiles in that way, he is at once forestalling injury to them, and further applying his artistic powers to practical purpose, which he does again when he proceeds to make ornamental use of the broad bands of iron by which the wooden framework is in one instance strengthened.

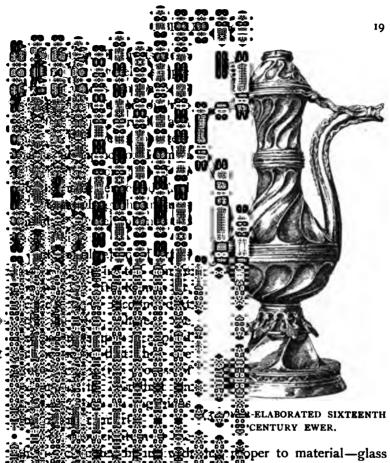
Forms which we find ornamental were in some cases at least suggested by use. The Irish brooch (11) or the Roman



12. OLD ENGLISH TANKARDS OF SERVICEABLE SHAPE.

fibula is in its simplest form just a safety pin. It was in the first instance designed to fasten and hold tight. When, however, the goldsmith or the bronze worker began to take thought of beauty and to modify its lines, however slightly, with a view to shapeliness, he ventured on what we call applied design, though he may not have added a feature to it which had not its origin in use.

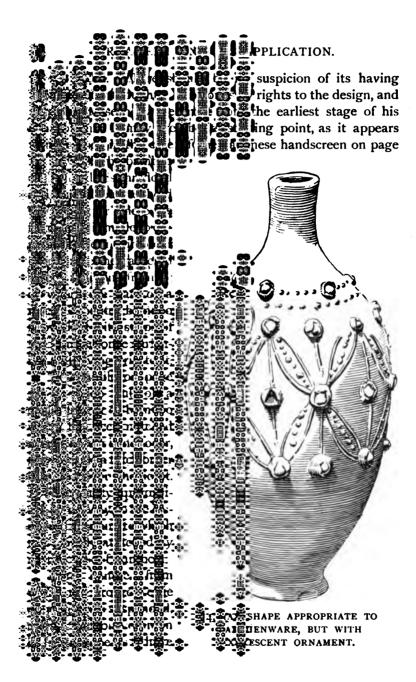
It is use again which determines the shape of a drinking or other domestic vessel, which fixes its dimensions and capacity and suggests its general shape, which settles that its mouth shall be open or that its neck shall be narrow, that its spout shall be so devised as to pour out only at the right moment, that its foot shall be firm, its handle fitted to the hand and placed with due regard to equilibrium. The reconciling of purely utilitarian considerations such as these with considerations of proportion, grace, in short the look of the thing, is already the function of applied art before any thought occurs of what is generally understood by decoration. And art is by no means to be measured by the ornamental character



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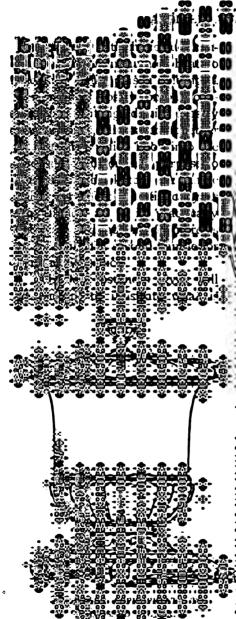
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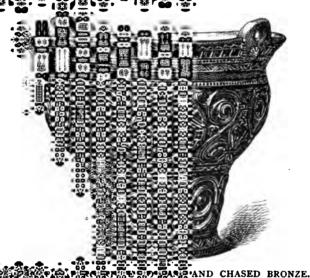
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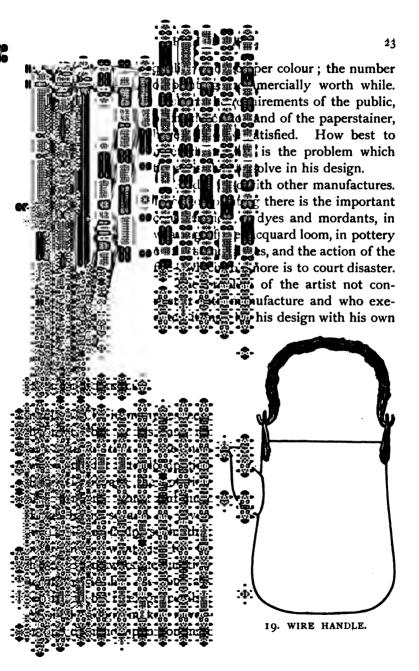


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IV. THE CHARACTER WHICH COMES OF TREATMENT.

Processes give rise to appropriate ornamental form—Examples: clay, metal, &c.—Ancient ornament to be studied from the point of view of its application to material and process—Intelligent design—Appreciation of "treatment"—Natural form only the food of the artist—Conditions of manufacture leave their mark upon design—The treatment appropriate to design in itself of value, or of none—Design indicative of embroidery, of weaving and of various kinds of weaving—As affected by printing and by different kinds of printing—As affected by the use to be made of a woven or printed stuff—Lace design of various kinds—Embroidery design—Tile design and its relation to enamel—Design adapted to inlay and mosaic—Translation of design into the terms of craftsmanship.

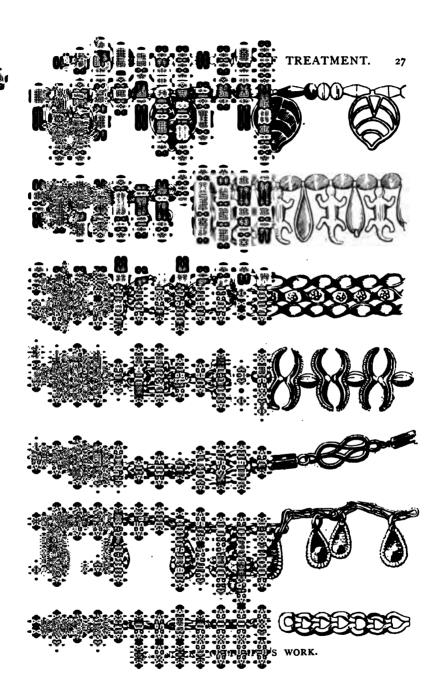
THE fit treatment which it has been agreed to call "conventional" gives character to ornament. A new method of work gives rise to a new style of design.

A process of work itself gives rise to ornament. What is more, the forms arising in this way are sure to be appropriate.

Natural forms must needs be reconciled to their new conditions; forms which grow out of conditions are ready shaped to the hand of the designer. Ornament so formed is by birth, what ornament founded upon nature is only by adaptation. Material, tools, and methods of technique have determined it; and further treatment is unnecessary.

There are generic qualities of design which, when once our eyes are open to such things, we recognise immediately as belonging to wood or iron, clay or textile fabric, to carving or forging, to modelling or weaving, as the case

LICATION. The material emroclaims itself, it may atically, it may be withrting itself positively; fluence is nearly always ble. This character in nit is neither arbitrary #dental. It comes of folhe hint which materials. ways of work, are so give to the designer, his endeavour to get them what they can 🖏 🖏 d give best. 1 practical designer of tly wide experience to an tell at a glance the of which a thing is Its shape alone tells that a vessel is of clay, or and perhaps what kind or metal. ន្ត្រីវិក្សា hardly want telling reliquary here given silver, for all the archicharacter of its design, the jewellery on page gold. It is derived and the sources, Egyptian, Roman, Anglo-Saxon, nich; but whether it is ဗြမ္မာရမ်ိဳးup from thin plates or out in wire, bent into or twisted into chains, r they are little pearls



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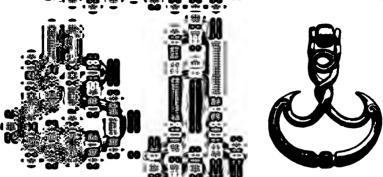
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of gold that are soldered on, or cloisons to hold inlay of lapis and other precious stones, everywhere the ductility and yielding disposition of the metal is to be perceived, to say nothing of its fusibility. And so with other ornamental detail, a workman sees at once that it was designed to be done with a brush, a point, a chisel, a punch or a hammer. In the naïver work of early days this kind of character reveals itself more plainly than ever.

The stiffish curve which comes of bending an iron rod into shape, as in the knocker, opposite, to the left, is wholly different in character from the subtle undulation in the handles of the Venetian glass vessels on pages 30 and 31, which tell by a sort of sudden droop in the curve that they were shaped whilst the material was red-hot. So also the stiff twist in the iron handles is characteristically unlike that in the soft clay handles of the earthen jar on page 129.

The source of all practical design is in the sympathetic appreciation of material. We are born with sympathy (or, alas, without it); but it grows with knowledge, and appreciation comes of understanding. The secret of appropriate treatment is best learnt from the study of what has been done in the way of practical design, and from the observation of its relation to technique, old or new.

The way to get at the root of ornamental design is to ask yourself always in the presence of a satisfactory piece of work why the artist did just so. At first you can but conjecture; but, as you compare, and test, and cross-examine, conjecture grows into conviction. You say to yourself: This kind of thing occurs so continually in iron work, that so constantly in textile fabrics, there must be something in the nature of the metal or of the stuff, in the art of smithing, or of weaving, to account for it; and, with a very little knowledge of the craft, the light of certainty breaks in upon you. And one such secret solved is the key to another.



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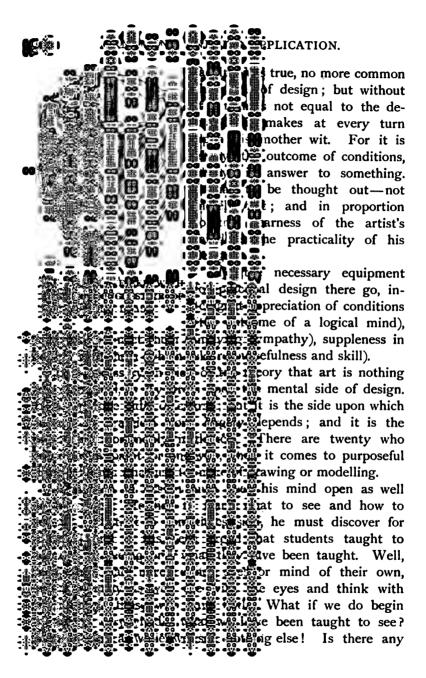
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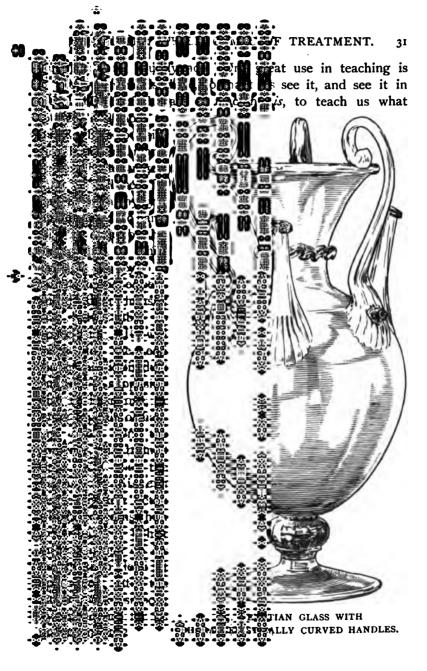
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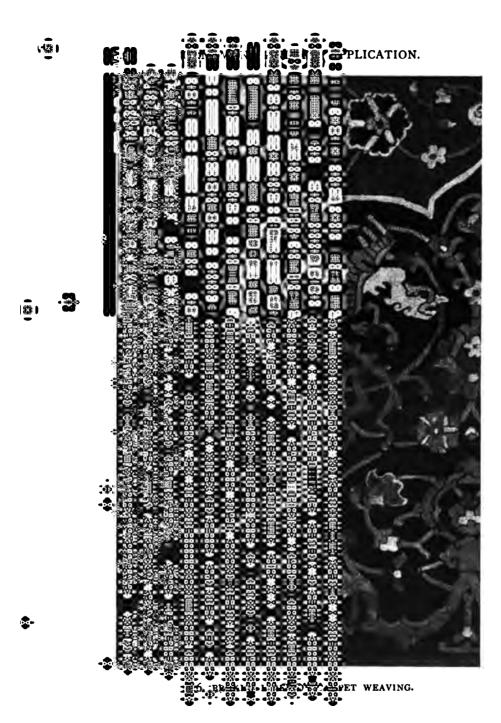
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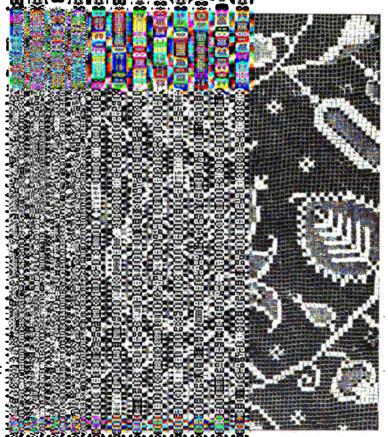






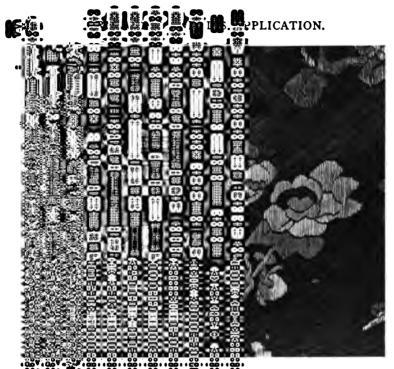


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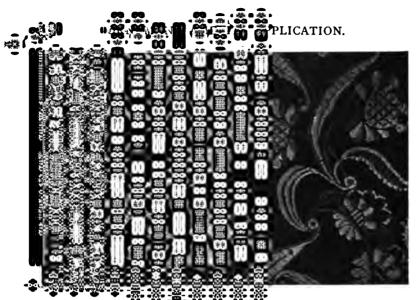
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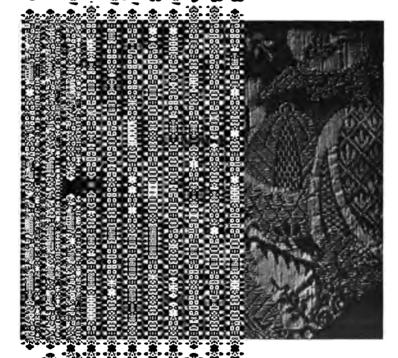


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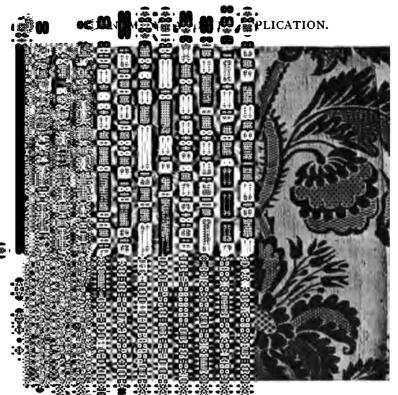
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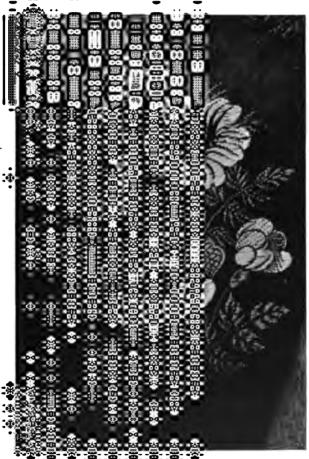
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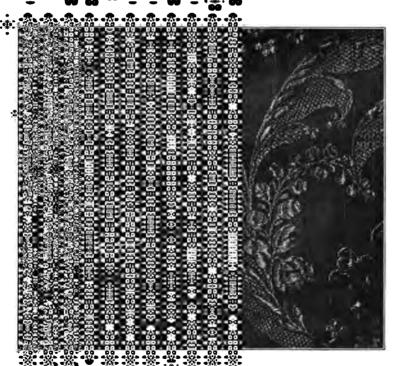
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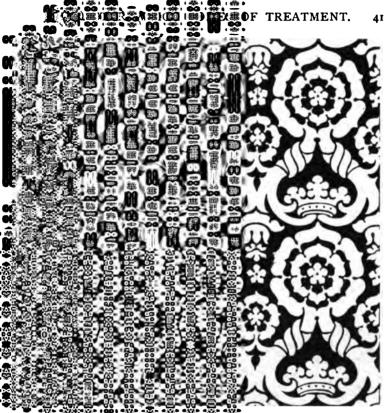
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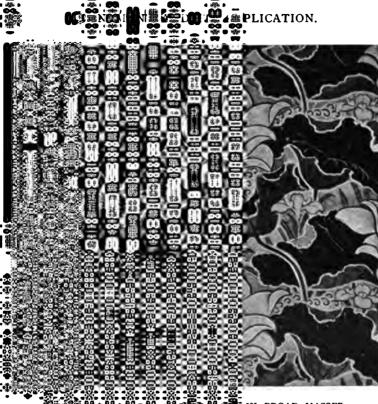
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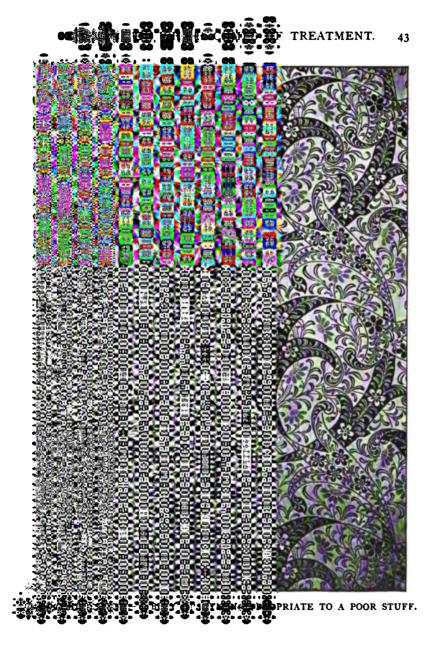
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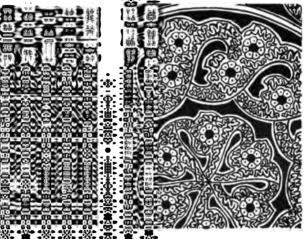


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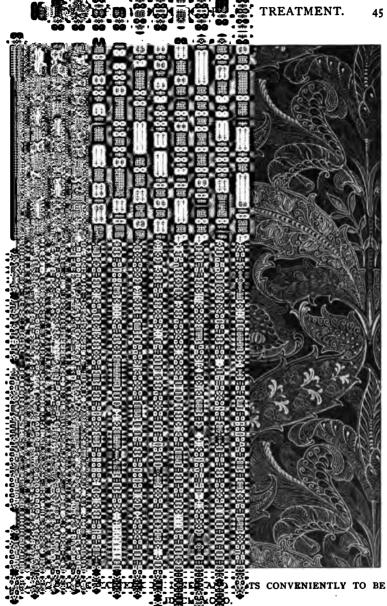
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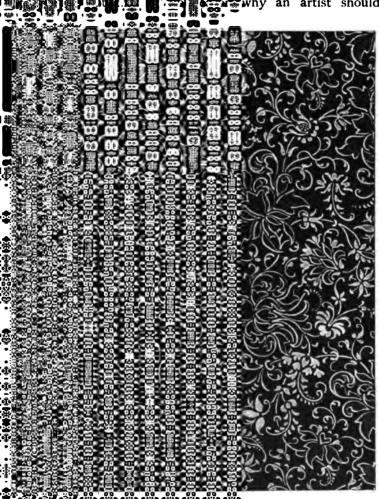
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obliterate the square jagging of the outline altogether. slight "step" in the line softens it, at the distance from which the stuff is usually seen; and when you get near to it it tells its tale—to some of us, at all events, an interesting one-witness the old silks on pages 36, 37, 38, in two of which is to be noticed, in addition to the "stepped" outline, the diapering of parts of the design, always in patterns frankly built upon square and diagonal lines. This is really a device of the weaver for getting intermediate shades between ground and pattern colour without using more than a single The happy practice lingered, as will be seen on page 30, even to a period when design was falling into naturalistic ways; but, so long as the attempt at shading did not go beyond what is seen in the satin tissue there illustrated, all individuality was not lost. It is impossible to compare the clumsy ugliness of the flower in the brocade on page 40 with the delicate and dainty lace-like patterning of the more conventional ornament without realising the wisdom of designing, so to speak, with the woof of the stuff: and this an expert never fails to do.

The texture of a material makes all the difference in the kind of pattern appropriate to it. A damask or velvet designer appreciative of the material designs his pattern, as in the fifteenth century example on page 41, broadly, to show the material to advantage, and keeps it flat, because he can rely upon its varying sheen to save it from possible harshness. It is the worst possible policy to adopt in designing for a noble material a method calculated to disguise the poverty of a base one. The weavers of shoddy have so naturally had recourse to fussy patterns that any textile worried all over with pattern lays itself open to suspicion.

We owe the looser character of the later Lyons silks partly to a loose age, but partly also to the fascinating colour of brocaded silk. In any less lustrous material it



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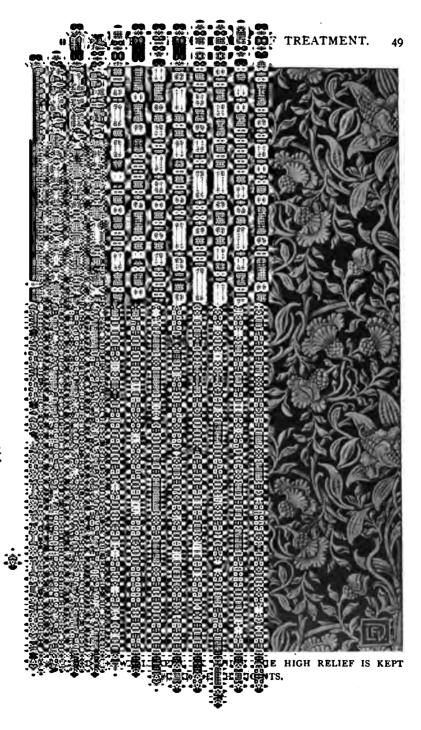
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not take some heed of the forms he employs. Designers of an earlier period, more seriously considerate of their art, have shown that care in this respect is not incompatible with perfect colour—that it goes, on the contrary, to the beauty of the fabric.

Plenty of plain ground is the obvious device for showing the quality of damask, velvet, wood, marble, or whatever the intrinsically valuable material may be. But it is not the only one. Big patterns with broad surfaces show equally the inherent beauty of a rich material, and may therefore with advantage be allowed to crowd out a less significant ground.

It follows from what was said above that full and crowded pattern has its uses. The comparatively fussy detail which demeans a fine material helps to redeem a Printed wall-paper, for example, or common mean one. calico, wants detail to give it a richness which in itself it has not. There is a richness even in cotton velvet which allows one to indulge in flat masses of rich colour (36); and in printed linen, too, the material gleams through the dye and gives life and brilliancy to broad patches of colour; but in printed cotton flat colour looks dead and lifeless. The old cotton printers used what they called a "pinning roller" a wooden roller (for hand printing) into which brass pins or wires were driven. The dots printed from this roller relieved the flatness of the printed colour, and gave "texture" William Morris adopted this idea of dotting in his cretonne and wall-paper design with admirable effect. became in his hands an admirable convention in place of more natural shading.

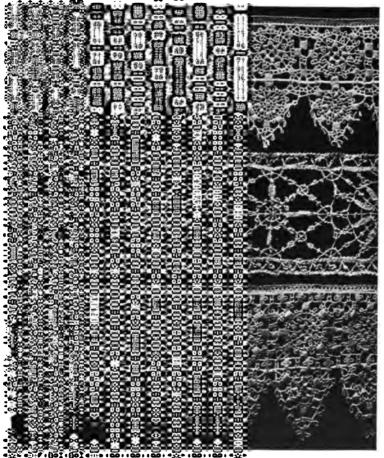
Ornament might well be described as, in the first instance, a means of getting texture—of making a difference between one part of a surface and another. It may be mere scribble with that purpose—and was often not much more. The pattern from a piece of Japanese stoneware (38), roughly drawn



in brush lines, is not much more than scribbling to give a texture or tint, and the pattern on the pattern in the Persian earthenware (39) is still in the nature of a scribble. no reason why such unconsidered scribble should not develop into more coherent pattern, as in the cotton print on page 43, the relation of which to the last mentioned Persian earthenware will reveal itself at a glance. The enrichment of ground and pattern with secondary pattern-both alike overgrown with it—in order to make amends for the poor quality of the colour, gives a certain mystery to it which goes towards reconciling one to the absence of sheen in a cotton print. a woven stuff of any worth it would not have been necessary thus to inhabit every part of the stuff with small pattern. There is yet another reason for the be-diapering of the main forms of the ornament, and in fact, for drawing the pattern in fine lines and dots, as in the cretonne on page 45, if it is to be discharged. It is possible for the dyer, it should be understood, to get a much deeper and richer ground colour than could be printed. Hence a practice of first dyeing the cloth and then discharging the pattern, or, what amounts to the same thing, printing in a medium which will resist the colour and then dyeing. There is always a risk, however, that the discharge or resist may not be perfect. The colour discharged may stain the white cloth, and stain it unequally. This, which in the case of flat surfaces might be very objectionable (at all events to the Philistine purchaser of the goods), is barely perceptible in lines and dots; and so there arises occasion for a kind of pattern which, to those who know the process, is confessedly designed for discharge or resist printing.

There is a difference, again, between patterns appropriate to block and to roller printing. The difficulty of printing first the ground and then the pattern (or some part of it, as in the cretonne on page 47), so as to leave a clear but narrow outline between the two, would be so great in block printing that it

TREATMENT. 51



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THE SQUARENESS OF

fine lines a printer in dye has no difficulty in leaving open. He has to plan a gold ground so that very little of it occurs on the joint, where there is always a difficulty of avoiding a discrepancy between the printing of one strip and another ("sheeriness" is the trade term for it). So in a highly embossed paper, such as that on page 49, parts in very high relief must escape the joints. On the other hand, the block printer has the option of blending and "patching" his colours so as to get variety of colour out of a single block. But all that has to be ingeniously planned, and seriously affects the possibilities of design.

The purpose of the pattern, again, to hang in folds, to be used for curtains, or straight on the walls, or for furniture coverings—is for the designer to consider; and whether a wall pattern is to be in itself attractive or a mere background.

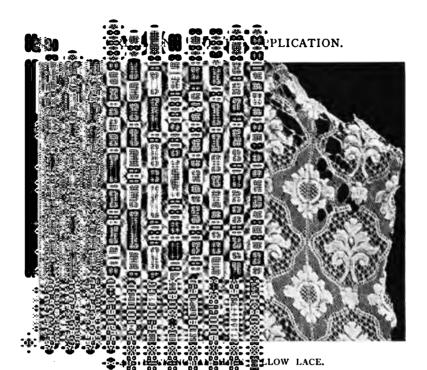
The prospective purpose of the material affects equally the hand-worker—painter, stenciller, or needlewoman. This it is which has determined the comparative dignity and frivolity of the earlier and the later kinds of lace—once designed for church furniture or ceremonial costume, and by degrees accommodating itself to the conditions of modern dress.

The "Venetian point" on page 51 shows in its square design, like all so-called "Greek lace," the lingering influence of the linen foundation out of which it is worked. It is the culmination of "drawn" or "cut" work; and this trace of a groundwork which has practically disappeared is a pleasant reminder of the process. In lace not worked out of a foundation but stitched "in the air" as the Italians say (44), the square lines properly disappear from the design. A clumsy modern imitation of "Greek lace" in crochet has prejudiced us to some extent against it; but it is in its way as delightful as the "punto in aria." Both are as beautiful as they are characteristic of the way they are done. A feature in this last is the variety of filling stitches which, like the geometric patterns already referred to in weaving (page 46),

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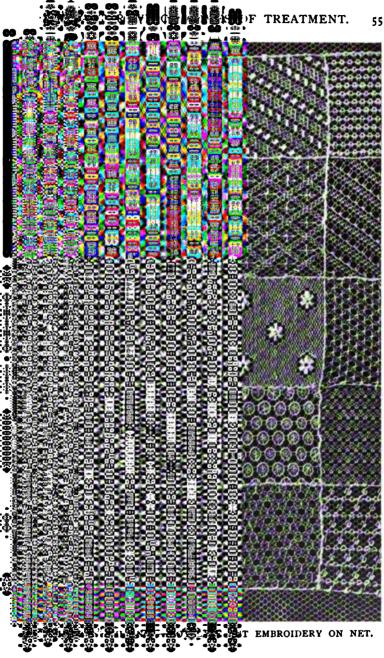
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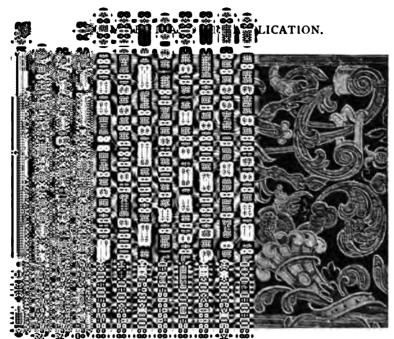
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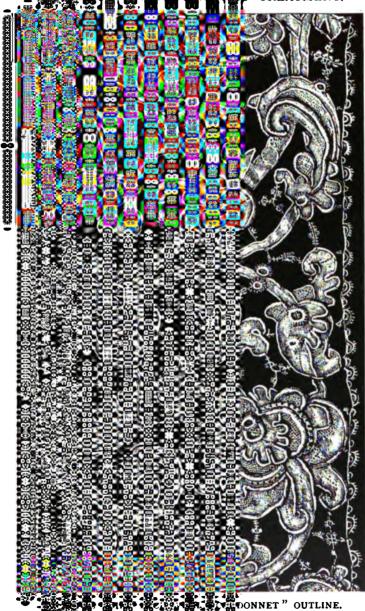
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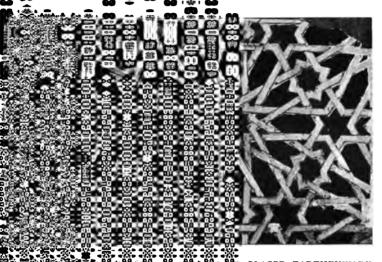
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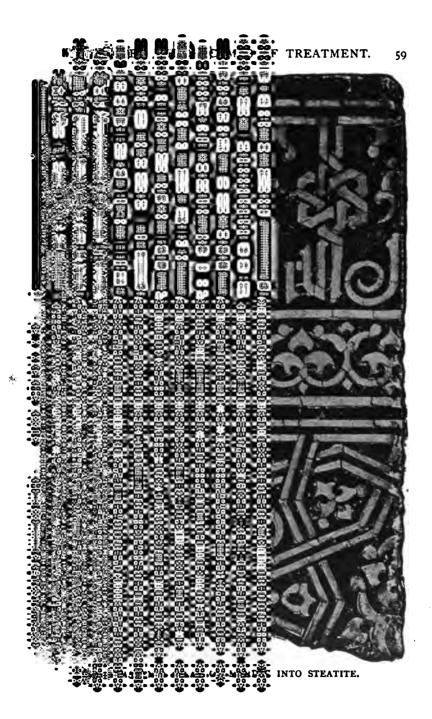


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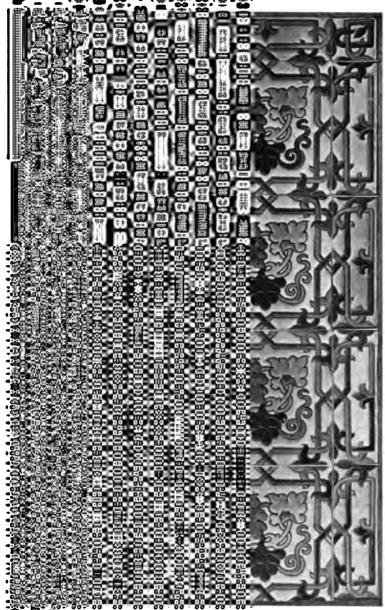
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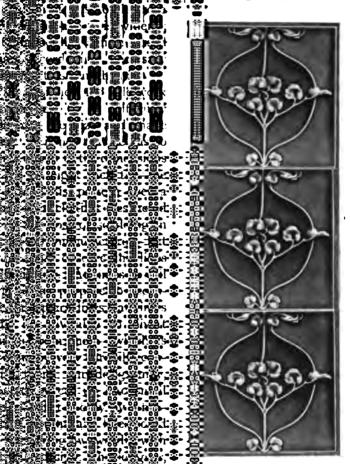
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F TREATMENT. dery the pattern is not rk, as will be seen (page tlined either by stitches, nasking the joint (47).



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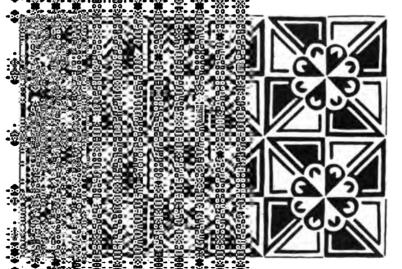


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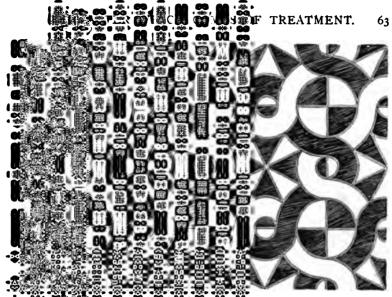
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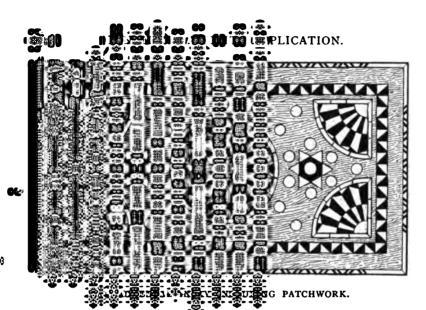


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TROVER OF LIGHT AND DARK

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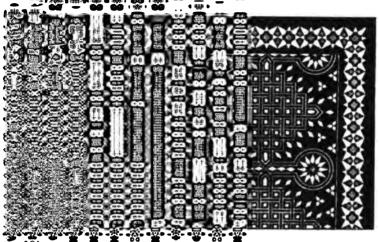
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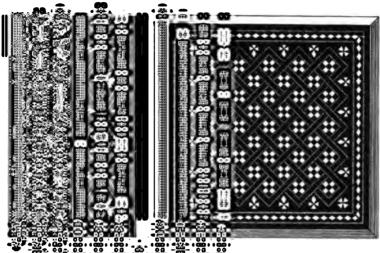
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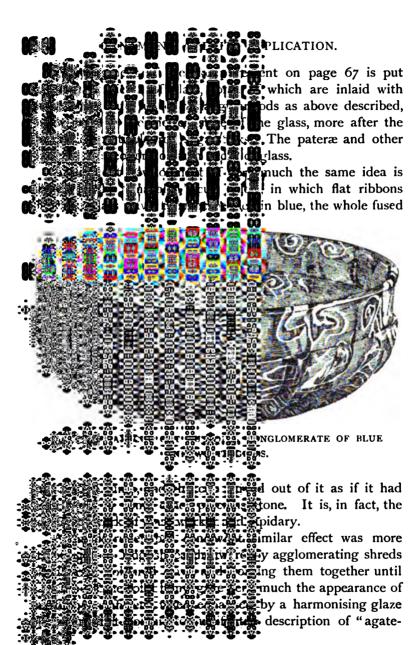
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The range of surface design and the influence exerted on it by practical conditions is so wide that the attempt to cover it here would be absurd. Enough, it is to be hoped, has been said to show how much designers lose who confine their attention to the one sort of work for which they happen to design. The design of men working in a direction apparently quite unrelated to their own may yet be a most fruitful source of inspiration. Not only is it likely to be suggestive, but they may freely draw from it. For, in the very act of translating a borrowed notion into the terms of his own craft, an artist of any personality will go far to make it his own. "Translators, traitors," says the proverb, truly. Here, by way of wonder, is an occasion when treachery is a virtue.

V. THE TEACHING OF THE TOOL.

Treatment and style are as cause and effect—The character which comes of workmanship—All processes influence work done—Material and tool determine character—Examples: pottery, weaving, basket-work—Forms evolved out of the way of working—"Linenfold" panelling and its relation to the moulding plane—Bookbinders' tools and their influence upon design—Drawn and cut work, and in what its design differs from that of pillow-lace—The designer and his material—Conventions accounted for—Architectural proportions—Clay and its character—Metal and its characteristics—Carving in wood and stone, and in various kinds of wood and stone, in ivory, in crystal—The influence of the knife upon carving design, of the chisel, of the drill—Cut leather—Quilting—Repoussé metal—Modelling in clay, slip and gesso—Cut glass and blown glass forms—Opus Alexandrinum, geometric mosaic in glass and wood, Arab lattice-work.

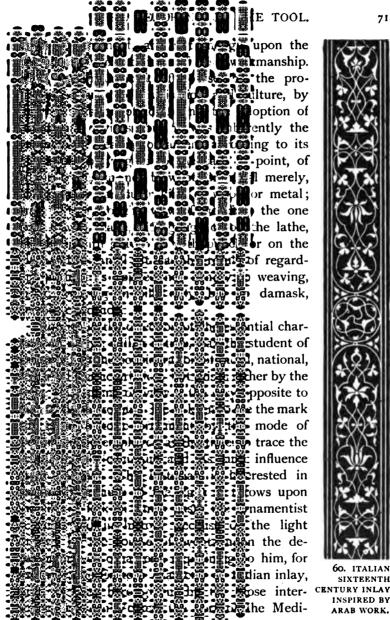
STYLE and treatment are as effect and its cause. Historic ornament, as we call it, is less a matter of time and country than of the methods of workmanship then and there practised. We see in it the sequence of design. Its course, however, is not quite so clear-cut and direct as might be gathered from the fluent accounts that have been given of it. Who shall trace it for us in all its deviations? Where is the artist equipped with the necessary scientific knowledge? where the man of learning susceptible enough to the charm of art? Scientific investigators err from want of artistic appreciation, artistic observers from want of historic data to go upon.

Too much stress has been laid upon the Egyptian, Assyrian, Greek, Roman, Byzantine, Gothic, Renaissance



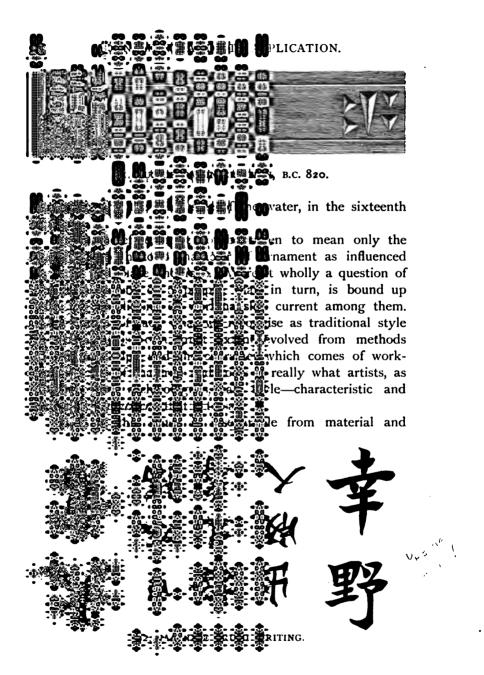
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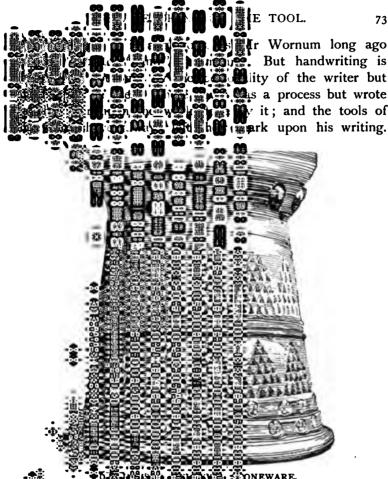




60. ITALIAN SIXTEENTH INSPIRED BY ARAB WORK.

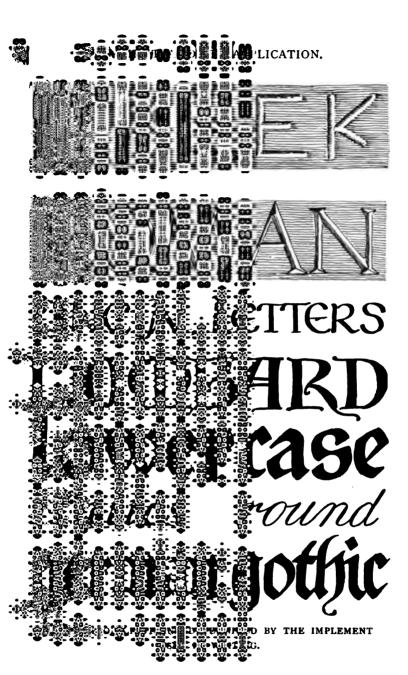




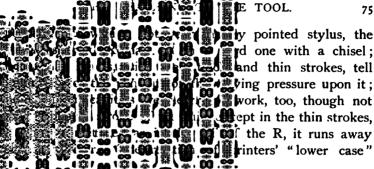


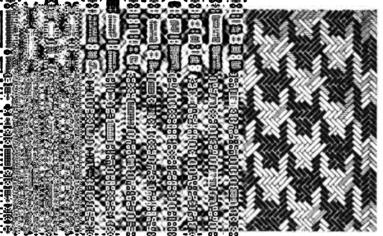
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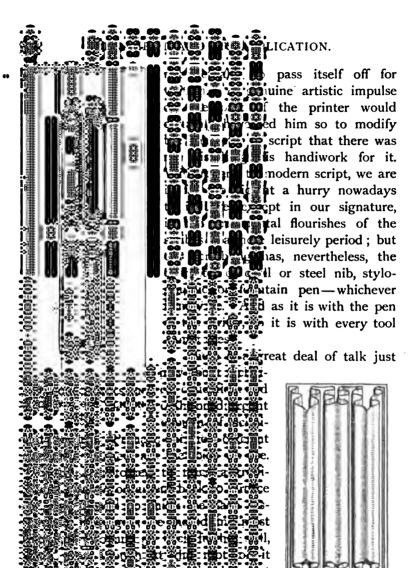




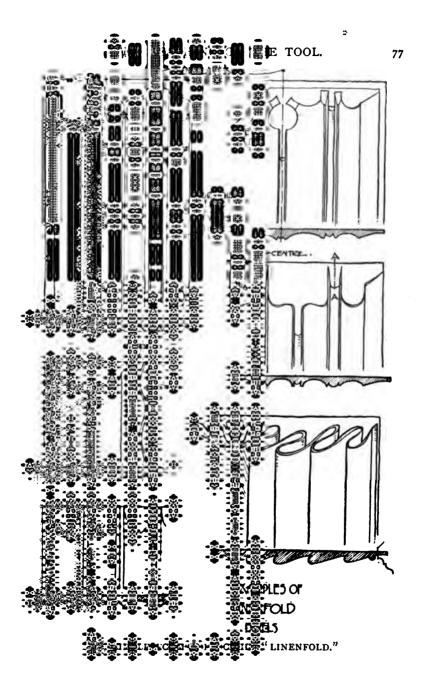


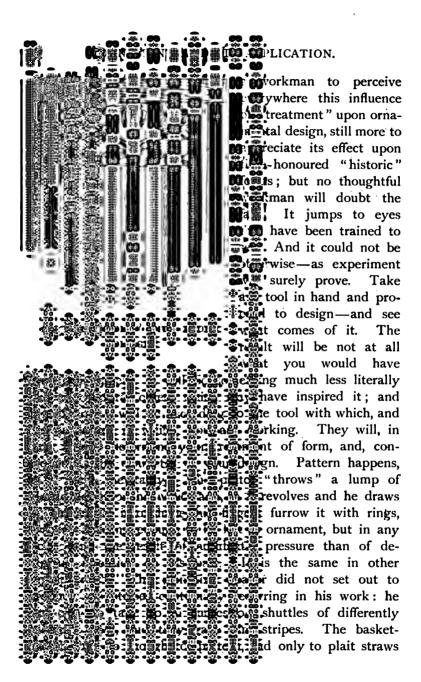
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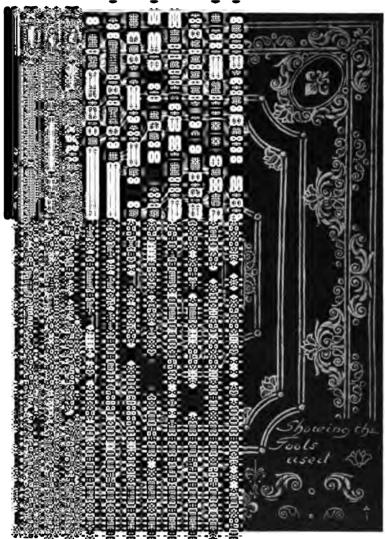
67. GOTHIC "LINEN-FOLD" PANEL.





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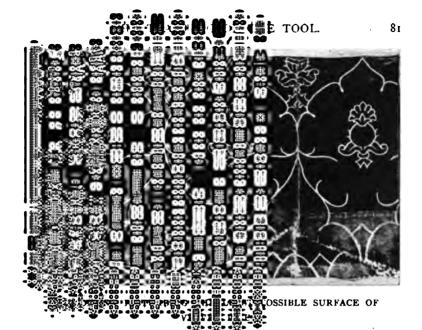
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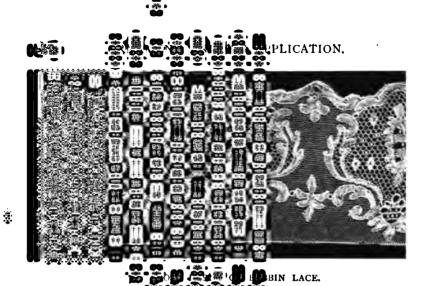


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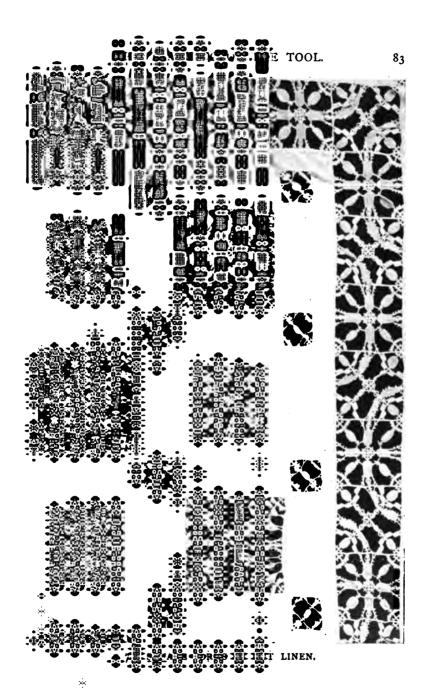
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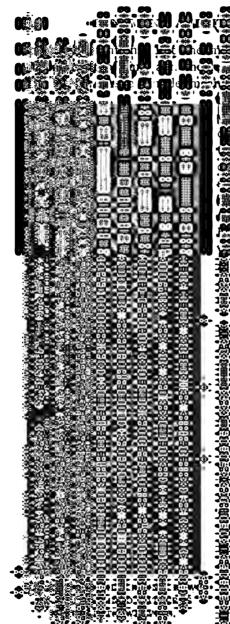
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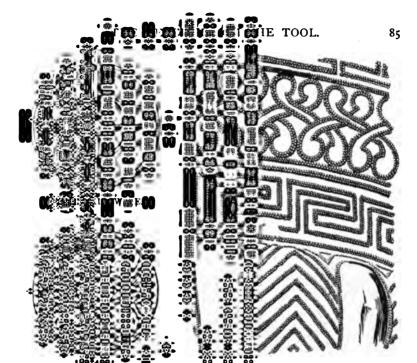




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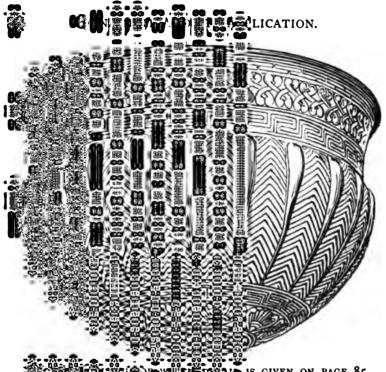
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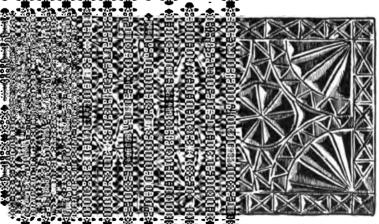


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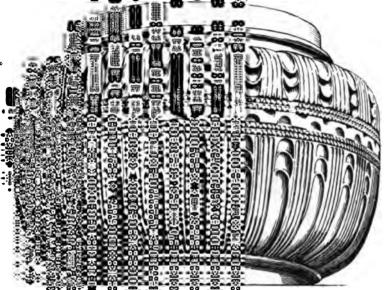


87 er and more indetermiand ornament are alike rer forms belonging (as d other forms of lace in be seen that the square ways in cut-work (75 as done. In the same ac of leaves and flowers d eighteenth centuries bell consideraland ioats of silk, and their ult of the square mesh of the long chapter of tions of work, and the n ill ligent use of ornathe conditions inherent talk and process may be ornament. Let the ays clearly in his mind digign has to be carried



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LICATION. My as though he were king under them. te theorists who will t the designer should 🎎 own designs always, kman design whatever Happily that is not r practical men know t under modern conlition on which a man sted to design adehat he shall know all naterial and the way worked, that he shall the treatment proper erial, realise what can og ath it, what can best be will it, and what cannot be it at all. He is in a n to decide upon the colour of his design. will have something both points. What is his circumstances of the wholest and most natural commonly be, not only course, but the one cally conducive to success. irectness of downright ရှင်္တေ့always a charm of its Hrst our attention turns ve wonder why handion in certain lines.



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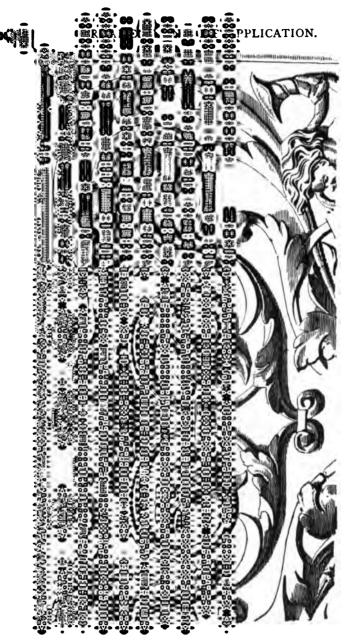
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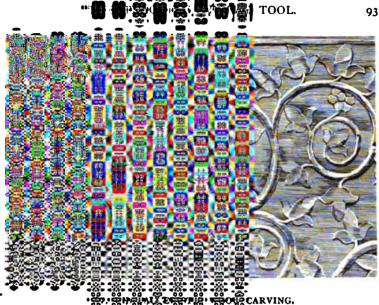
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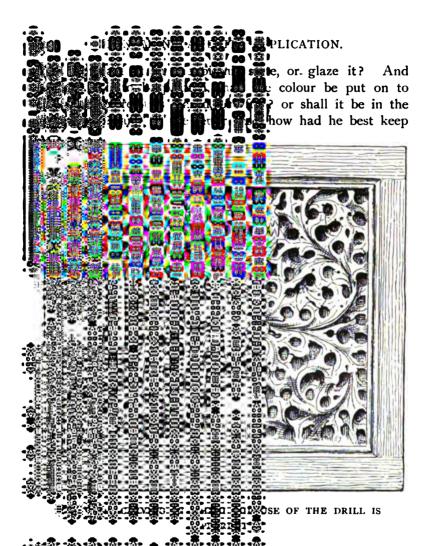
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86. THE CHARACTER OF THE MATERIAL PRESERVED IN FINISHED WOOD CARVING.



too, upon the stone, whatever may be used a a a a cater of a vessel is netal, or whatever it it merely with wood, eckon, but with pareach of which has potter has to detersel while the clay is the expediency of the fine porcelain, the rannare with which he Light, in short. ter-decoration of the upon it in wet clay,

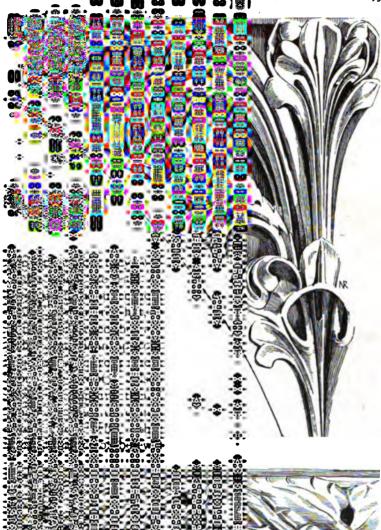
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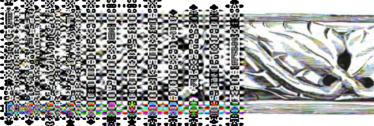


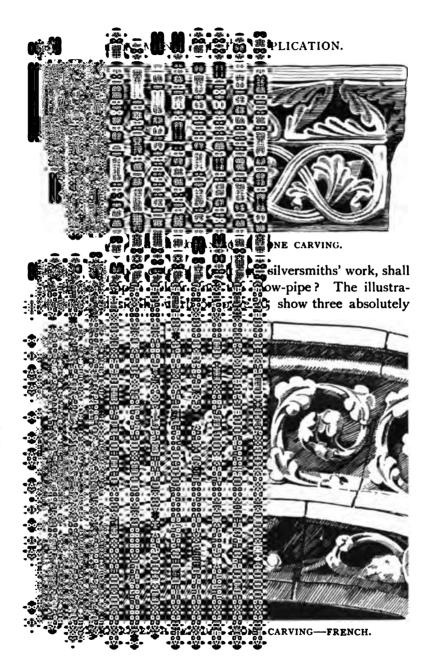
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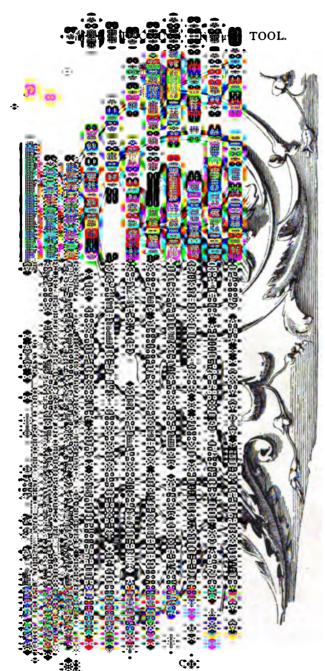








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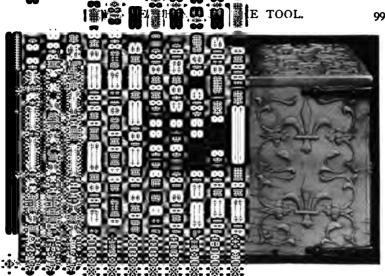


93. RENAISSANCE MARBLE CARVING-ITALIAN.

the simpler Anglo-Saxon e pattern is produced by gold soldered on to a thin te. The more elaborate of the other is beaten up late itself. In the Etruste general design of which page 86) only the long tures are beaten up, the lines are produced by the surface of the cup, a ork peculiarly adapted to is easily soldered.

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comes to relief on a larger noice of the artist lies beng and modelling. And a serve different arts, logically kery different treatment, and, to characteris-Erent design. I say "in because there is, no doubt, in the expression hether of form or feeling, technical consideration ື້ອງຊື່hat of adequate expression. nan carving, though we use state what it is ed, the material makes all



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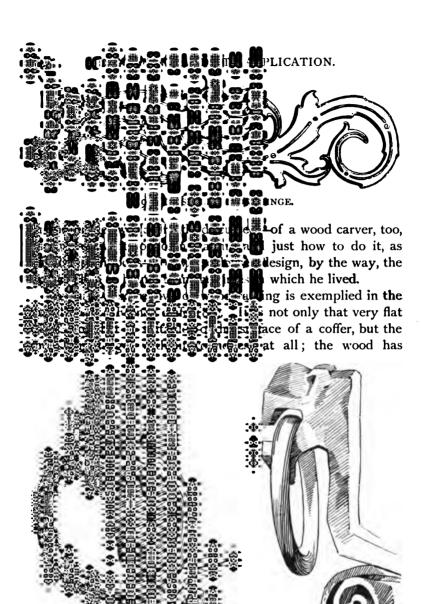
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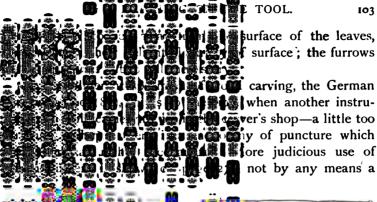
he anxiety of the inanark of the tool, because trays them. A skilled man on the other hand, when as in the case Eae salt bowl illustrated age 89, his design is re-Entargement of embossed metal, nake such frank use of ouge that you feel that attern, or at all events in Edetail of it, grew out of The grain of wood Blass a longer and more rassise stroke than stone, the evidence of this and certain line gives acter to all simple wood and to the best and accomplished of more ed workmanship. What nan in the crowd adin the work of Grind-



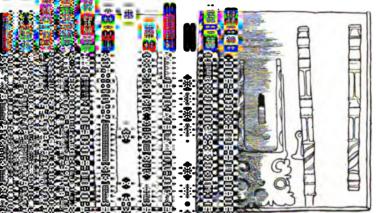








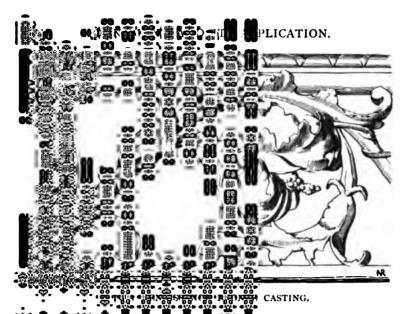
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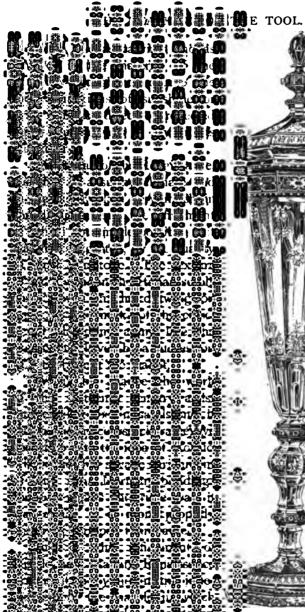
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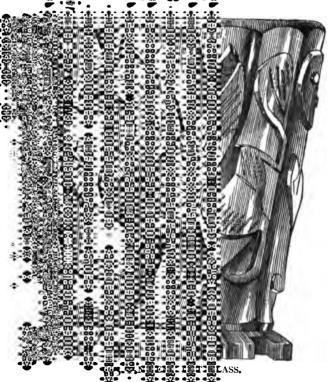





102. CUT CRYSTAL.

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d entirely to symbolic ag in granite or basalt, insist upon the folds ince. It was certainly d the carver of the hag in detail; and, had he might very well gives such astonishing, to pattern just engraving, and to







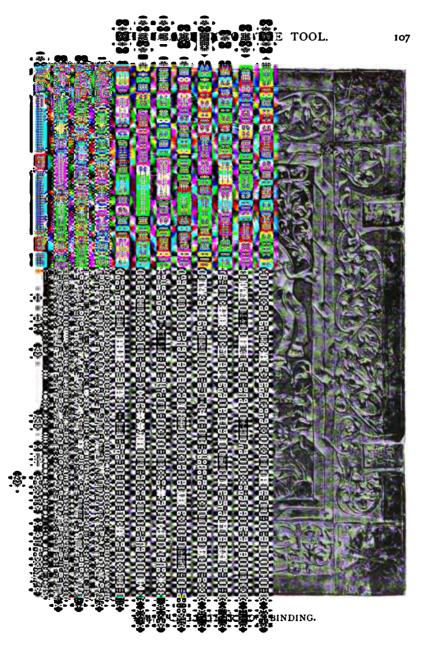








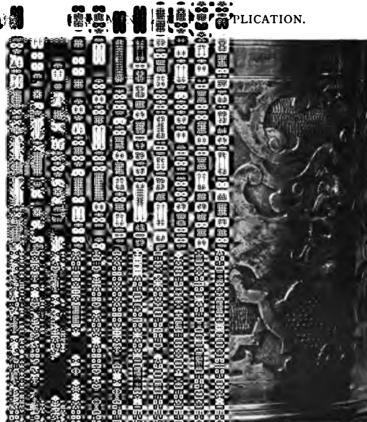






PLICATION. d ornament (95). The is restricted by the size even by its shape. In ntury Madonna (97), no earlier Greek figure of), the twist of the figure cribed to the curve of which it was carved. 🤵 is to say, cut his comug to his ivory. kacksmith and locksmith, chisel under severe rewere as little likely as carver, to indulge in ornament. The hinge heet metal (98) is a very from what the smith hammered work. His had 500(99) have an Egyptian their squareness comes was iron he was chiseland the esign in his lock-plates notching or facetting expressive of the lock-្តាំ នៃ naturally the qualities bject, of course, to the it shall "draw" from there is the further chasing the cast. Of said that, either it signighly done, and carried nt of perfection beyond t, or the metal left as

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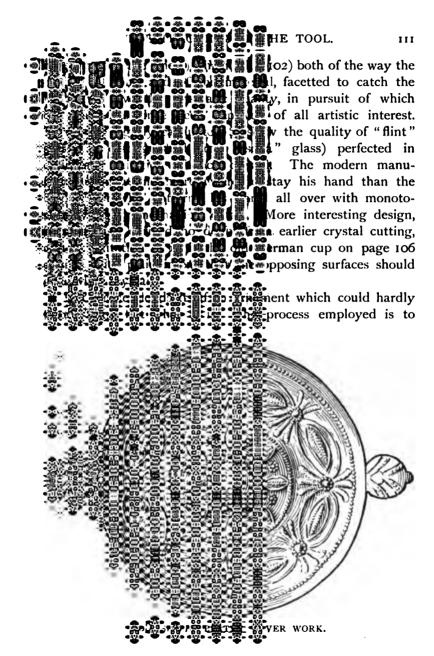


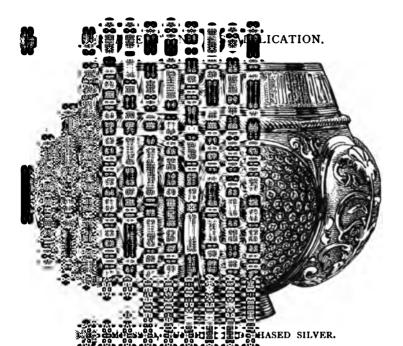
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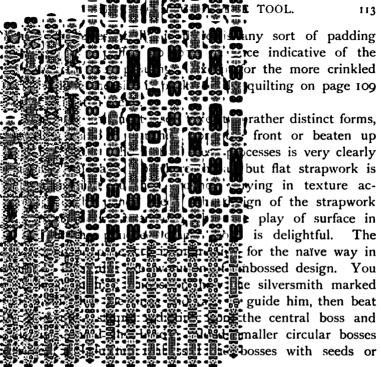
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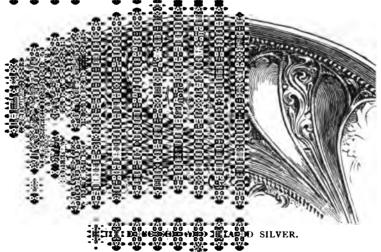


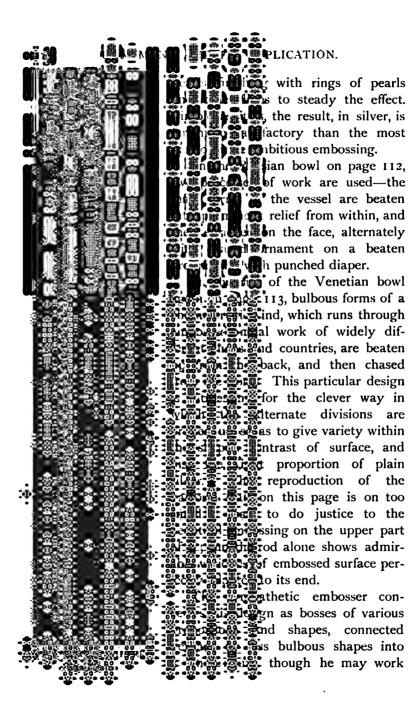


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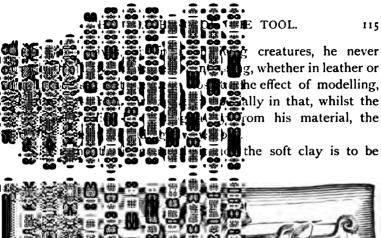
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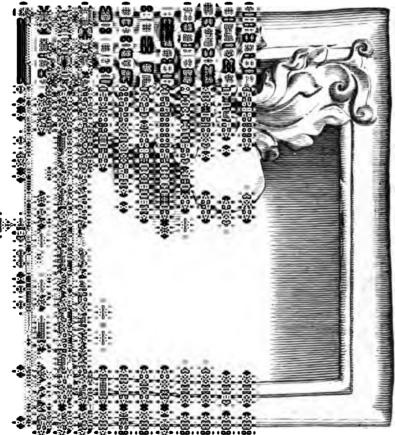




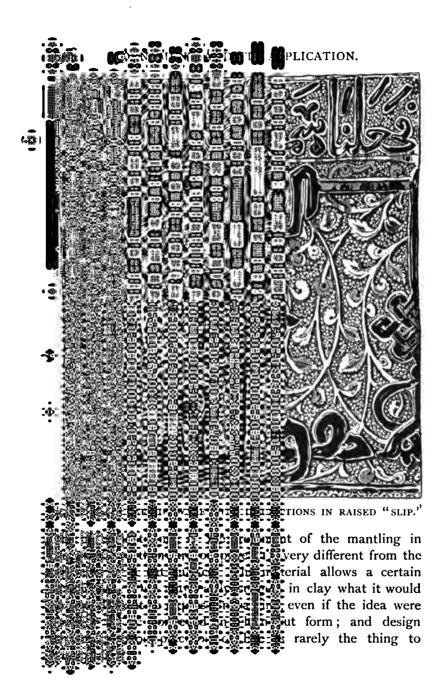








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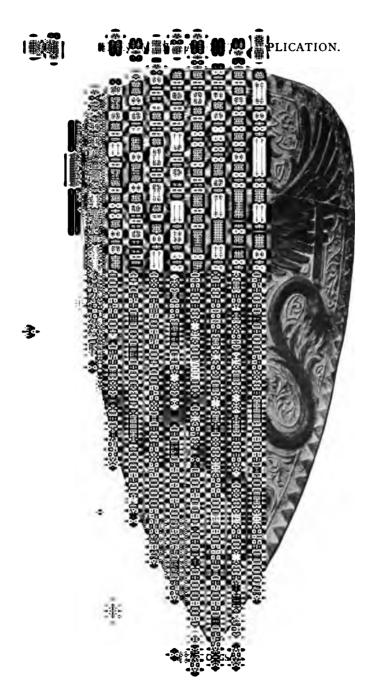




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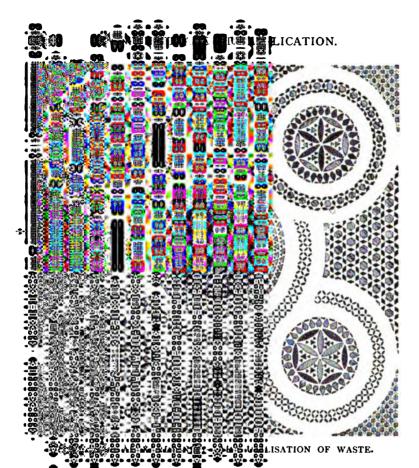






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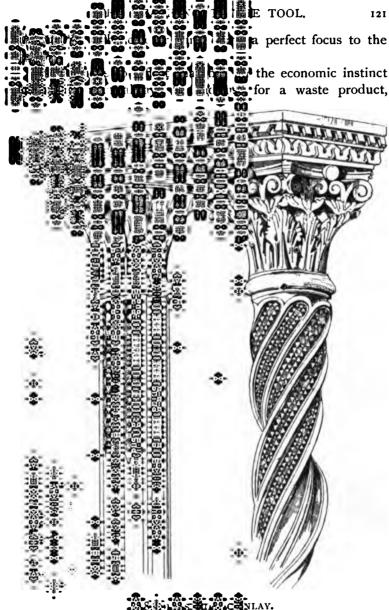
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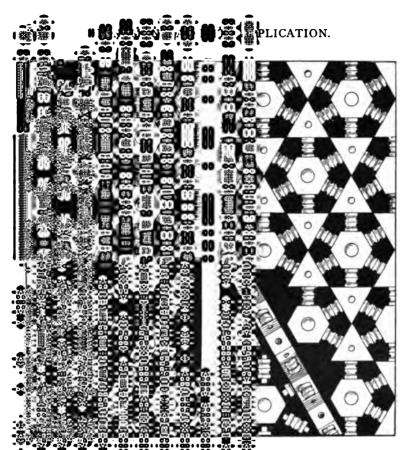












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geometric accuracy, we owe, also, the satisfactory effect of the old patchwork of white and colour, with its irregular veining of grey cement between—so absolutely unlike the clean-cut, close-fitting modern work with which the ubiquitous restorer is fast replacing it.

The Arab or Byzantine workman, it may be said, and with truth, was never prone, as we are, to mechanical precision; but, then, our modern inclination in that direction is, in no slight degree, the result of our facilities. Having perfected mechanism, we become its willing slaves.

The geometric character of this marble pattern-work points to its Oriental origin; but, traced to its first cause, there can be no doubt that the unequal colour of the marble (no less than the ease with which triangular and other right-lined cubes could be shaped) encouraged the use of severe pattern. The danger inherent in purely geometric design is a tendency to be mechanically precise; and accidents of colour, sure to occur in marble, just counteract it.

There is a corresponding fitness between the hard forms of geometric mosaic (118) and the bright colours of the glass employed in it. The little facets of glass catch the light at all manner of angles; they glitter each according to its own bright will; and the shimmer of the surface, nowhere absolutely even, puts the possible contingency of harshness out of the question.

In wood inlay again, originally equally geometric in design, the same fitness between form and colour is to be observed, the same softening of hard forms by colour naturally uneven. Uncertainty of tint makes amends for certainty of shape, and gives an air of mystery to what might else appear mechanical.

It is plainly upon the lines familiar in the geometric mosaic of the East that the Arab lattices opposite are built; but would they ever have been put together just in that way but for the opportunity thereby offered of using up little pieces of wood not without value in a land where timber was scarce?

In all applied art and at every stage of it the work in hand points out the treatment which is appropriate. It suggests of itself the degree as well as the kind of convention it is expedient to adopt. The artist has but to heed its prompting, and it will tell him what to do and when to stop doing it.

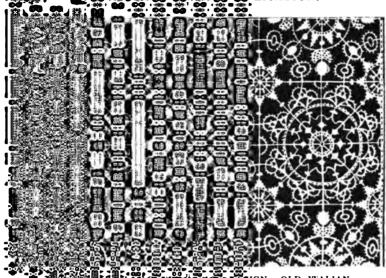
VI. AGAINST THE GRAIN.

Style the result of fit treatment—Borrowed character—Simulation—Showing off—Obedience to conditions—Ornament not independent—Character lost in the process of mechanical manufacture, sacrificed to pictorial ideal—Finish to be aimed at, not smoothness—The mark of the tool—Affectation of rudeness—In touch with the times—The artist's and the manufacturer's point of view—Art not independent of science—The way it is done—Workmanlikeness.

STYLE rightly understood is the character which comes of accommodating design to its use and purpose, to the time and place to which it belongs.

International traffic, to say nothing of "World's Fairs," has gone far to wipe national character out of design. Mechanical appliances have done much to prevent characteristic treatment of material; but the fact remains that all such character gives interest to ornament. The most satisfactory ornament, in fact, is that which comes of designing and working according to our national and personal temperament indeed, but with the grain of the material; of treating it after its kind; of being in short equal to the occasion. Ornament is above all things opportune. The badge of all who profess it is submission. To indulge in carving so bossy that it might have been beaten up in metal, in modelling so crisp that it might have been cut with a chisel, in painting so mechanical it might have been printed, is not only rebellion, but rebellion to very little purpose.

Inconsistency reaches its crowning point in the deliberate affectation of a character peculiar to some other material or

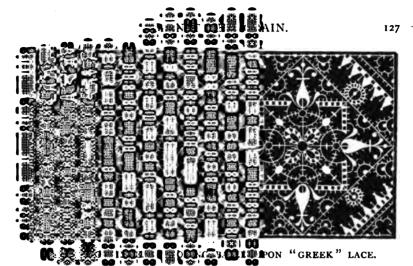


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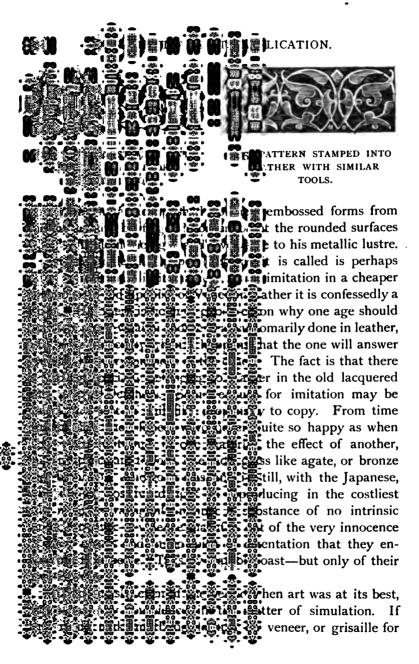


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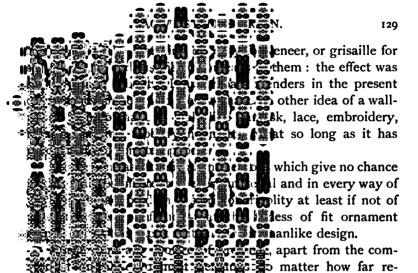
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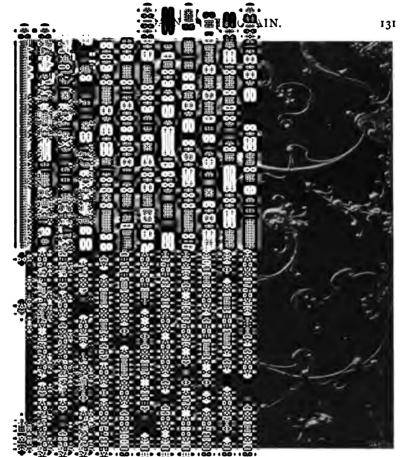
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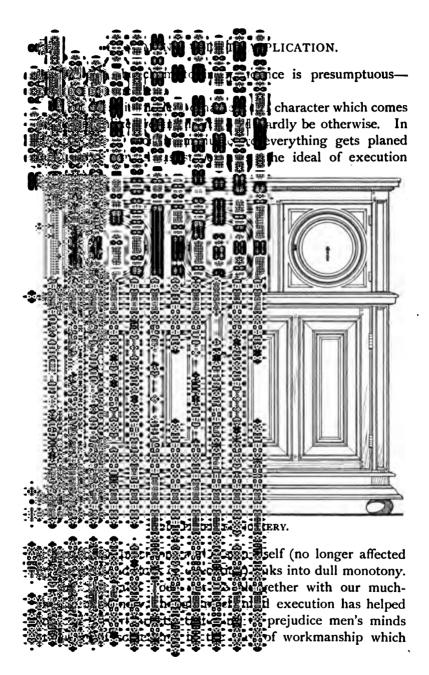
moved from the natural course of workmanship, a workman is led by a workmanlike instinct to do what is most unworkmanlike. Whatever is reputed to be beyond the scope of his particular art, that he is tempted to try and do; natural ambition it may be or foolish vanity; unhappily it leads him many a time astray. It is a besetting sin of the exceptionally clever workman to want to get more out of a method than it naturally gives, to think only that worth doing which will show off his skill. He will do it even at the cost of character. So it happens that we are asked to admire, for example, carving which might have been modelled, terra cotta which might just as well have been stone, cut leather which looks more like beaten bronze.

The wrong thing is done sometimes in such a masterly way as to compel admiration. It needs all the excuse of consummate accomplishment. High finish has its own charm. But if it wipes out all record of the way the work was done, the price paid for it may be more than it is worth.

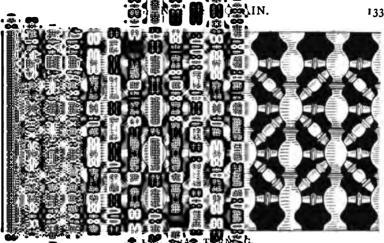
The attraction of a tour de force to the worker is obvious: to any but himself it is more interesting than attractive. We ask ourselves was it worth doing? was it worth while forsaking safe and satisfactory lines for that? An artist should know where to stay his hand, and have the self-restraint to stay it. And, in ornament applied to any useful purpose at least, the point at which to stop is where the material tells you to desist. The "convention" which comes of obedience, not to tradition, but to the conditions of the case in hand, is always right. Often it is singularly satisfactory. We ask no more of basket-work than ingeniously plaited pattern (65); no more of joinery than well-proportioned panelling (126); no more of turning than the lathe will give (127). A spidery pattern in black on white is more to the purpose of a pavement (128) than the battle picture in coloured marble mosaic which ranks as a treasure of the Naples Museum. And reticence needs all the more to be insisted



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any a fifteenth-century till concerned to work for the produced more satisest genius unconcerned

about its technique. Still there is a lesson for us, and some consolation in the success of the skilled craftsman where the great painter failed—for to make a design which in execution works out less satisfactorily than the drawing is to fall short of practical efficiency. It is not so easy as some seem to think for even a great artist to step down from his eminence and show the expert workman how to do it: all trades want learning. Another case in point is mosaic. Great painters have been enlisted in its service; but it is not the work of Titian or Tintoretto that we linger over in St Mark's. The archaic figures of the earlier mosaicists, severely silhouetted against their gold ground, give us infinitely more satisfaction.

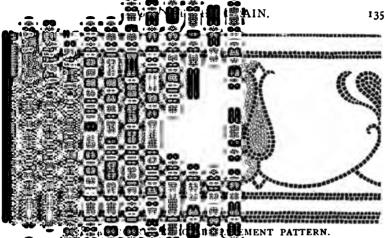
The lesson of Ravenna and Palermo is that the satisfactory mosaics are the work of men accustomed to design in tesseræ. From the middle of the sixteenth century onwards tapestry weavers seem with one consent to have agreed to work against the threads, mosaic workers to design as though it were for paint—and not one of their works in these kinds will compete for an instant with more workmanlike design.

It is not then so entirely mechanism as—civilisation shall we call it? which smooths all character out of workmanship—until, if we want idiomatic expression in design, we must travel back to some remote period of craftsmanship.

Our modern appreciation of nature is the plea on which we depart from despised "convention." Artists have always loved and studied nature, even when they treated it so as to convey by their rendering that it was the doing of carver or modeller, weaver or needlewoman. Whatever the work it was removed by a touch of the tool not so much from nature perhaps—the instinct which directs such workmanlike modification is natural enough—but from the imitation of nature. Pray art, deliver us from that!

The workmanlike touch grows, unhappily, rarer; the note of individuality is less often struck. Workmanship tells less and less of the workman. He no longer confides in us, nor

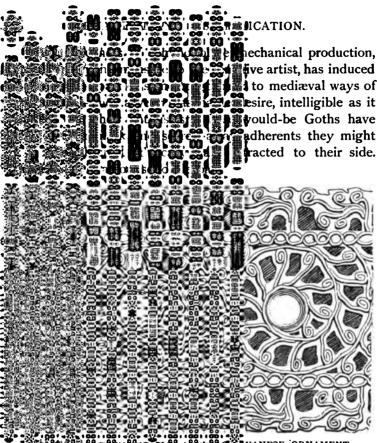




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VANESE ORNAMENT.

the twentieth century the meenth. Whatever the length one been accustomed; to ask for something is a pleasure to come, depicted of ornament artificer has simply better the spirals (which remind



one of the metal worker), attached it to papier mâché, fretted away a part of the ground, and gilded the whole. There is something quite taking in its barbaric character, and perhaps a hint of something one might do; but it would be a foolish thing for us to go and do that.

In design and workmanship alike we must go on, or give up the game. Our choice happily does not lie between the methods of mediæval workmen following the lines of tradition and those of latter-day capitalists. We have yet to try what seems the obvious way out of the difficulty in which a sudden change of industrial conditions has landed us—the experiment, not of returning to the rude or leisurely manner of old days, but of devoting ourselves to the solution of the artistic and industrial problem of the moment. The artists really effective are those in touch with their times, who know themselves not to be independent of existing economic conditions, who are in no way hostile to science or resentful of mechanical appliances which, turned to right account, might be of service It is not so much manufacture that is to blame for he existing state of things as the attitude of the manufacturer -and, let it be confessed, of the artist. The conditions of modern production are out of joint. Manufacturers know too little about methods of beautiful or artistic making, even if they realise that there is such a thing. Artists know too little about the means of modern manufacture, which, by their aid, might be put to much more artistic use than unaided commercial or mechanical instinct can possibly make of them.

If only artists and workmen knew as much as might easily be known as to what has in the past been done, and how it was done, and why it was done so, if they but realised what can nowadays be done, and under what conditions, they would not be far off finding for themselves ways which, without going against the irresistible current of modern industry, would meet the case of art. Artists who set their face against either mechanical or scientific invention, whether they oppose

it actively or merely stand aside, only widen the breach they are always deploring between art and industry. Their attitude is the result of ignorance, more or less wilful. None the less it is want of knowing which makes them so unpractical. A designer must know what there is to know about design, handicraft or manufacture, its past achievements and its present possibilities, before he can start fair. Not until he knows both sides of the question of industrial design (its many sides would perhaps be the more just expression) is he in a position to judge between one aspect of it and another; his opinions are until then but prejudices.

It is because, unfortunately, artists so often look only at one side of it, and manufacturers only at the other—and they happen to be the two opposite sides—that they get on so badly together, and manufacture has become what it is. attitude of artists is not always such as to command the respect of practical men. To praise the imperfections of mere accident as more beautiful than perfect workmanship. is not to show much real appreciation of design. Nevertheless the artist expert in one art, or in one subdivision of art, is curiously tolerant of imperfections in another, the technique of which is unfamiliar to him. He has been heard to say, when it was pointed out to him that what he was admiring was really only the result of careless or incompetent workmanship,—"So much the better!" and to expatiate at large upon the charms of the unexpected. But it is only in regard to crafts in which he is at most an amateur, that he gives vent to these unworkmanlike opinions. When it is a question of his own craft, he knows better than that.

The relation of science to art has never been very clearly defined. The one is in a sense the very opposite of the other, and the artistic temperament the antithesis to the scientific. But to a work of art there goes an amount of systematised knowledge which is nothing less than science—knowledge which is the necessary equipment for the successful pursuit

especially of an applied art. There is many a handicraft in which without definite scientific teaching the artist is at a disadvantage. What control can a potter have over his clays and glazes, or a cotton-printer over his dyes, without sufficient knowledge of chemistry? In truth such knowledge belongs to the very groundwork of design. And it might easily be taught, if artists were not so impatient of science, if men of science could see things more nearly from the artistic point of view. The difficulty is in imparting the necessary information in a way that does not revolt on the one hand the artistic, on the other the scientific spirit.

We talk of art teaching! Artists know that it is not art which can be taught, but only the things that go to its successful pursuit—the way to use eyes, hands, and brains, the control of such artistic faculty as may be born in a man. What training does, and teaching should do, is to make good workmen. Out of workmanlikeness art is most likely to develop itself. It is the source, too, of all a workman's satisfaction in doing, and in the doing of others. To him at least there is unfailing interest in the way a thing is done, in its character as well as its beauty. He looks for evidence of that, and delights to recognise behind the work a workman with whom to claim fellowship. It is not alone that he likes to see how some one has solved difficulties with which he has had in his time to deal, or taken advantage of an accident which occurred to him also, and ended possibly in disappointment; he has a thrill of purest satisfaction in perceiving how some one years ago and far away felt as he himself feels about his art, saw nature in the same light, accepted the same restrictions, and seized opportunities in the same way. Work thus sympathetic to him is a sort of approbation in advance of his own practice—the approbation, too, of a workman in whom he recognises a master. That warms his heart more than all praise.

VII. WHERE TO STOP.

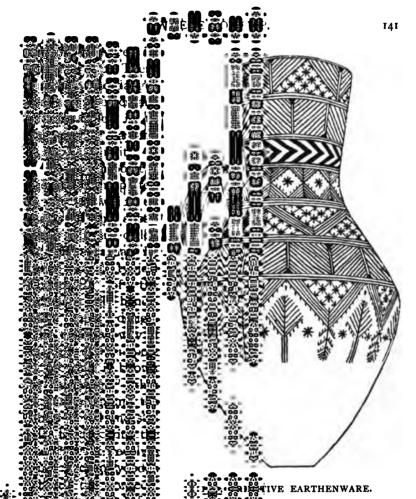
Taste and liking—Stopping points suggested by material and process: Ex. pottery—What can be done on the wheel, and with various kinds of clay—The quality which comes of throwing clay—The very different quality which comes of blowing glass—Coated clay—Accident turned to account: Ex. crackle porcelain and crystalline glaze—Devices growing out of the nature of clay and the way it is used—Scratching through an outer coat of clay to the different coloured body—Modelling a surface to show variety in transparent glaze—Decorating clay with liquid clay or slip—Decorating glass with molten glass (prunts, &c.)—Pâte sur pâte—Pottery painting and the potter's palette—The ordeal of fire.

THERE is no more common fault in ornament than the endeavour to go too far. Artists want to do more than the conditions demand, more than they justify. In determining the limits of decoration we have to take account of the personality of the artist. It is not a question of taste only, but to some extent also of liking. One man may like more enrichment than another and yet be no less surely controlled by a fine sense of restraint.

Nor, were it otherwise, is it of any use attempting to lay down rules to be upset by every change in ever-changing conditions.

The one sure and constant rule is that, with regard at least to common things about us, use and handiness mark the limits of fit ornament. And, just as the thing itself, the material it is made of, and the manner of its making, show the way to appropriate design, so they may be said to warn the artist when and where to stay his hand.

A convenient stopping point occurs naturally where



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131. RUDELY THROWN GERMAN STONEWARE SHAPES.

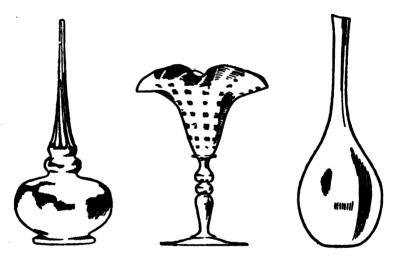
the familiar and typical pottery forms grow again so naturally under his fingers, you realise how it happens that ugly forms are rare in primitive pottery (130). It is plain that the ugliest pot ever made on the wheel must have passed in the making through more than one stage of beautiful form—lost because the workman, sitting over his work, is not in the best possible position for judging when his forms are perfect, and, as likely as not, before he is aware of what he has done, it is undone again.

The wheel, then, gives beautiful shapes typical in their



132. REFINED CHINESE PORCELAIN SHAPES.

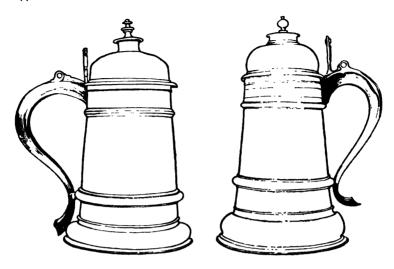
soft gradation of the action of the hand in shaping them. Why call in an after process to harden them? There may be a sameness in thrown shapes; but is there no monotony in the forms arrived at by more mechanical devices? The fact is that for very many purposes the wheel gives, and gives naturally, all the variety and beauty of form that artist need desire. And if potters were in the habit of depending upon it, they would find means of using it to yet further purpose. Reticent but effective use may, for example, be



133. BLOWN GLASS SHAPES.

made of modelling tools to give, if necessary, graduations of form less blunt than the finger tips alone are bound to give.

The charm of thrown shapes ought not, however, to blind us to the limitations of throwing. The consistency necessary to the manipulation of the plastic lump will not allow (though something will depend upon the quality of the clay itself) the throwing of shapes such as we find in the old Greek vases. They are the result of an after-process akin to turning. But their refinement is gained at the loss

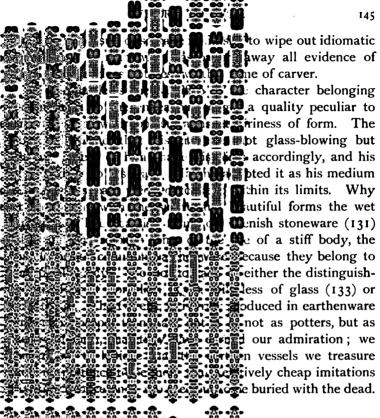


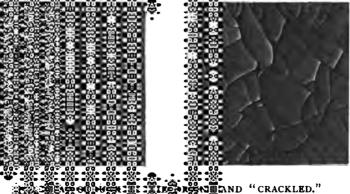
134. SIMPLE METAL SHAPES.

of a quality more characteristic of potting. Mechanical trimming in the half-dry state of the clay effaces what was done whilst it was amenably moist to the hand—and that so effectually that one is inclined to ask whether, if in the end a vase is to be shaved all over on the lathe, there is artistically any reason for throwing it at all, and the thing might not just as well be made mechanically from the first. Refinement of form may or may not be worth the sacrifice of the plastic quality of clay. The important thing is that we should realise the cost of what we get, and face it.

The too eager advocates of throwing forget, if ever they knew it, that the process is not equally applicable to all kinds of clay. An expert potter throws, turns, presses, or casts his vessel, partly according to the kind of shape he wants to get, and very much according to the kind of clay he has to deal with.

The effect of finishing processes generally is to undo something already done. The worst use to which they can





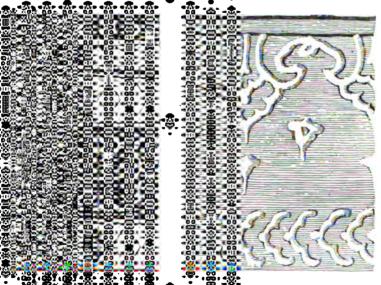
RELEGION.

If lightness is the quality desired the wiser plan would be to employ a material of which that is the characteristic –glass, for example, which, in its molten state, is blown like any other bubble, and has all the charm of airiness (133). (The Phœnician bottle on page 237 shows another characteristic glass shape—a shape not unlike that of the glass bubble when but on his slab to bring it : but it has none of the Ematter of fact it is not ass upon a core of sand,

and good by the simple of the two clays shall be cacking of the outer skin in the "crackle" which in the "crackle" which in the second and other than the second and other than the second at the seco



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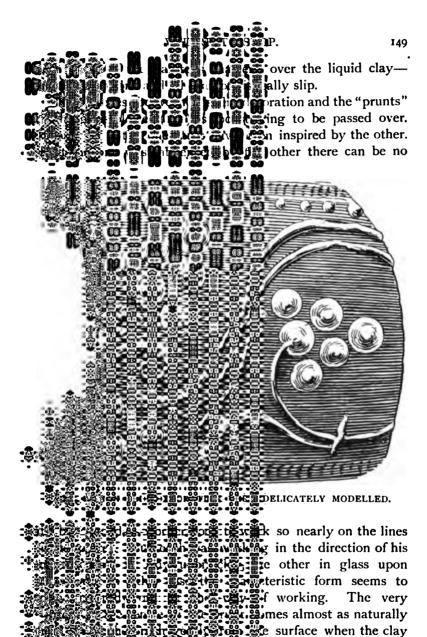
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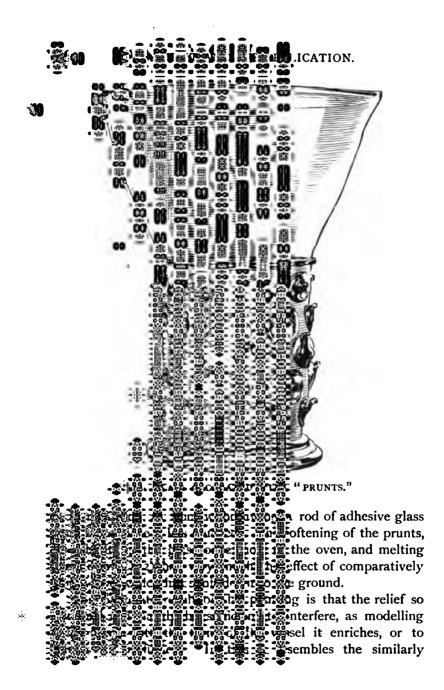
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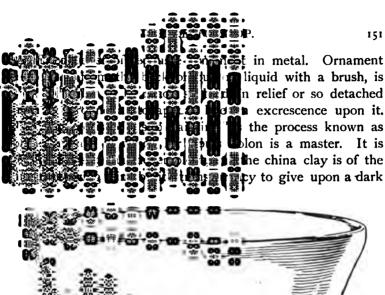




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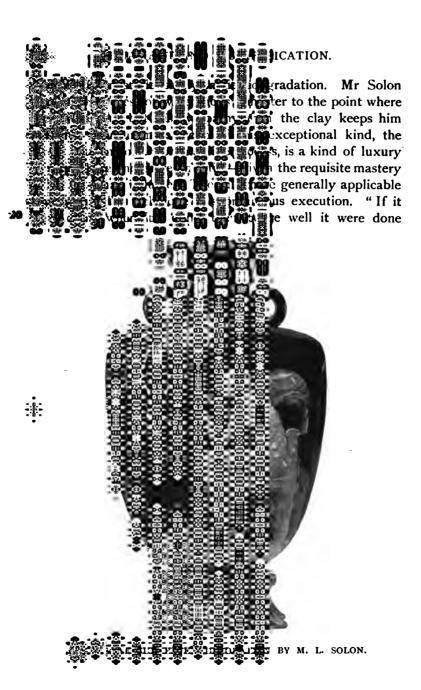
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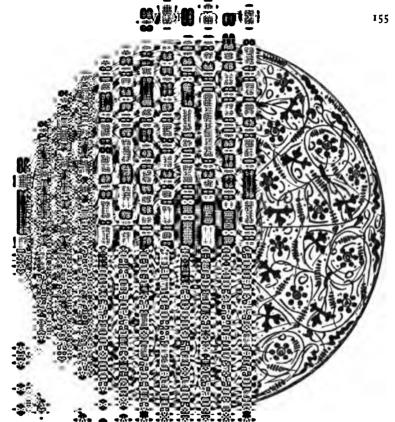
PAINTING.

with pottery painting, which sucks up each which sucks up each laid on, or upon the laid on,

and is held there in suspension—hence the quality of "blue and white," cobalt being the colour most sure to spread in this way, so that you see into it. Could anything be more ill advised than to give up this advantage inherent in the medium used? And yet, instead of securing a superlative result, easily within reach, European china painters persist in fidgeting and stippling with the brush, dabbing the colour with cotton wool, or laying on coat after coat until there is no trace of transparency in the triumphant evenness of colour. You will find sometimes a piece of old Worcester in which the blue ground is extraordinarily fine (there is one in the Closer inquiry goes to show that it is Iones Collection). only because the painter had not quite succeeded in his attempt to obliterate the natural transparency it should have been his first care to preserve.

There was reason for the reservation (above) as to onglaze colour. It is only under the happiest conditions that it sinks into the glaze. More commonly it lies upon the surface, glossy indeed, but without the transparency of under-glaze colour. Why then resort to it? The only reason an expert pot painter has for so doing is to increase his palette—the fierce fire necessary to fuse the glaze burning away many of the colours he would like to use—and he has not the reticence to stop at the point suggested by the fire. Without denying an artist's right to use the means which give him what he wants, it may be remarked that the secret of ancient triumph is commonly in the restricted means of the workman, which compel him to simplicity; and that the failures of modern times are as commonly to be accounted for by the multitude of facilities, leading astray from it.

Where is the piece of Sévres or Dresden china to compare with a fine bit of Nankin blue and white porcelain? And so in earthenware the glory is all with Rhodian faience (144), Italian majolica, and Hispano-Moresque lustre (145), in which even when the painting was on the glaze, it was restricted



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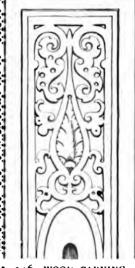
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it may be)—which he ought not to adopt without first asking himself whether it is the one fit for his purpose, adopted it let him respect it, and regulate his aim according to his appliances. Let the pottery painter think out a scheme of colour his palette will allow him to realise. oxides at his service will deprive him of possible indulgence in natural effects, but will lead him in the main to results more perfect in their decorative way than he could ever get by disregarding the nature of vitreous colour, in no case independent of the uncertain action of the fire upon it. That alone should be enough to keep him from entertaining the idea of colour depending upon precisely accurate tones or tints. The one thing certain about colour that has to pass through the fire is its uncertainty in the kiln. Pity as we may the sorrows of the poor pot-painter whose ambition is all in opposition to his craft, we cannot hold him blameless for his misfortunes: his plain remedy is to abandon a medium for which he has no sympathy, and to adopt one in which he can express himself, if not with ease, without for ever breaking his heart over it.



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146. WOOD CARVING LITTLE MORE THAN "GROUNDED OUT."

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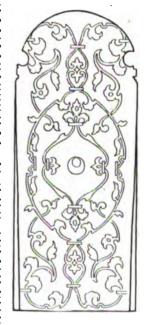
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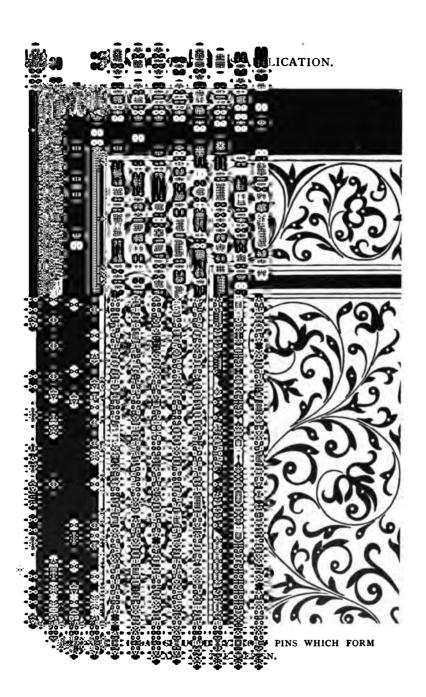
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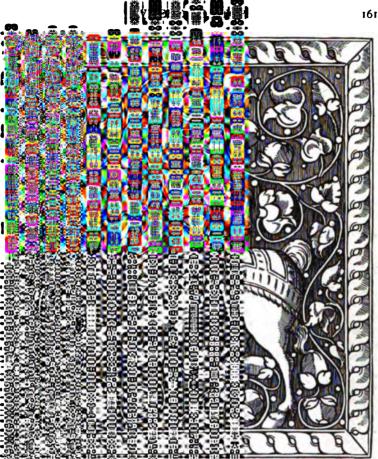
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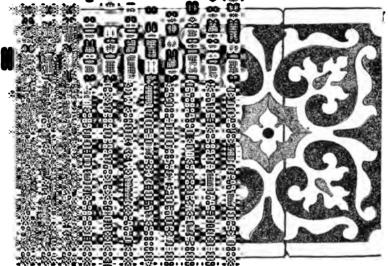
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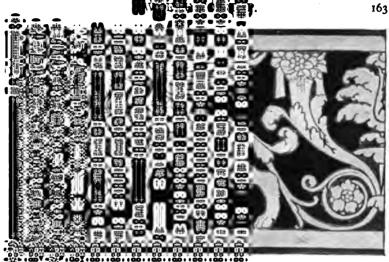


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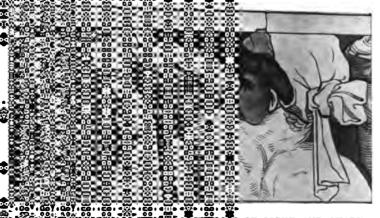




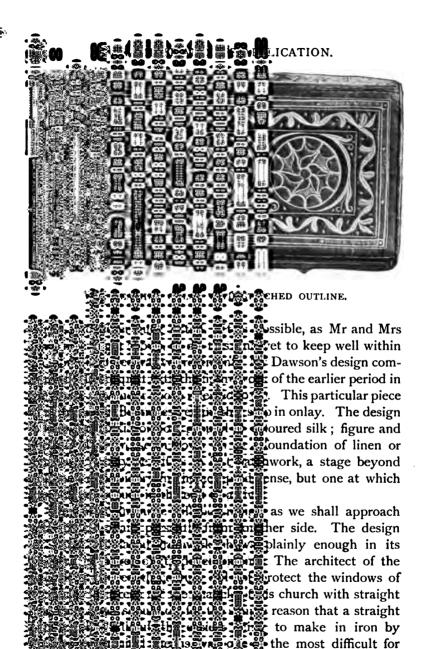


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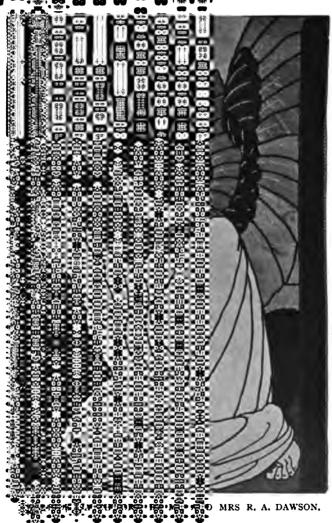
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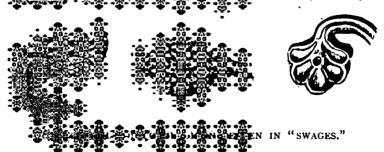


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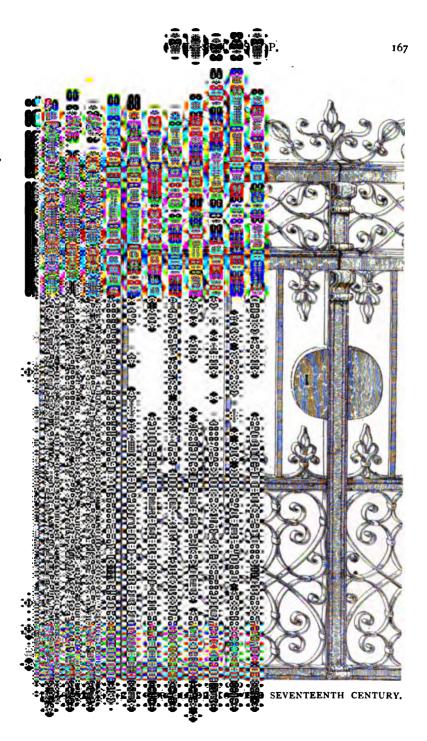


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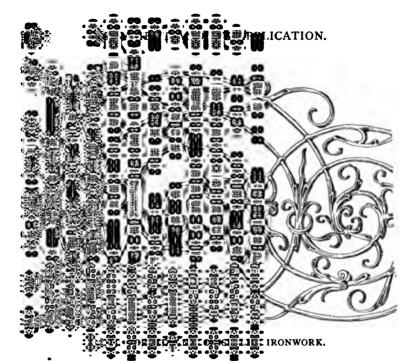
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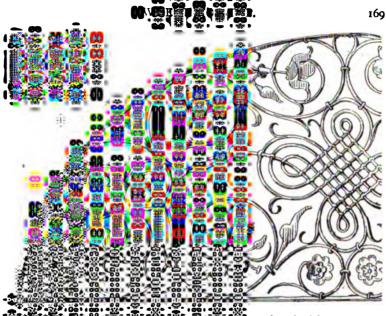
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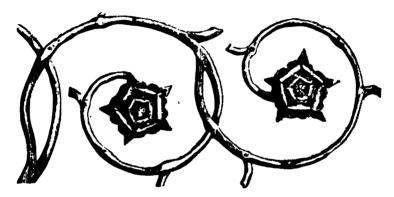
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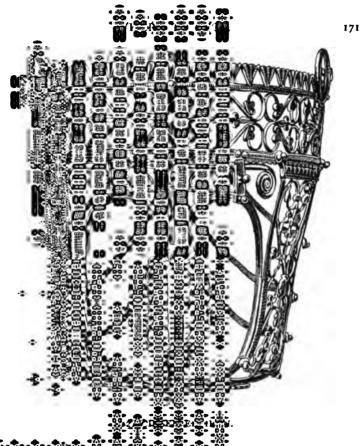


161. FLOWERS BUILT UP OF SHAPED AND EMBOSSED PLATES OF IRON.

late Gothic work conventional leafage cut in this way out of flat iron was curled up into the most luxuriantly florid and at times uncomfortably bristling ornament.

The severe and well-knit ornament in the horse muzzle opposite tells of quite another procedure, the chiselling of cold iron or steel—armourer's, no longer blacksmith's work—a process which does not invite excess. The forms are in some respects reminiscent of hammering; but the more they are examined the more evident it is that they are produced by piercing—fretted (see Chapter XI.) out of the solid, and engraved on the surface.

A smith who has it in him to strike out in a direction of his own will always put his mark upon his work. It is so



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were formed. The of some one man's second's work, it bears also ars, and pincers, each when the smith gives tyle of his design tells

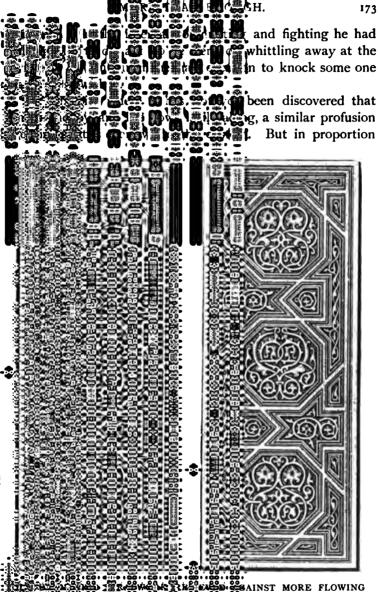
IX. MORE THAN ENOUGH.

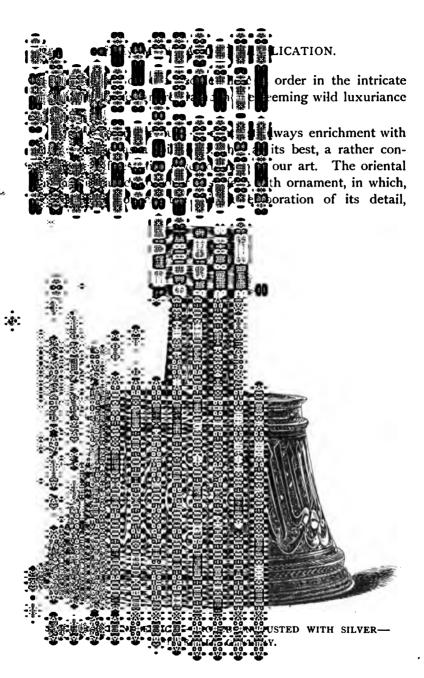
Aboriginal fidgetting gives rise to pictorial art and ornamental, to the scratching of the caveman and the notching of the South Sea islander—Profusion of savage and of oriental ornament—More sparing use of modern Western ornament—Plain surfaces in contrast to enrichment—Strapwork, Oriental, French Renaissance, Gothic, Byzantine—Cartouche work—Reticent enrichment.

THE very need of ornament arises out of a certain innate discontent with plain smooth surfaces—out of the natural irritability of man, who cannot, it seems, keep his hands, let us not say from "picking and stealing," but from fidgetting with something.

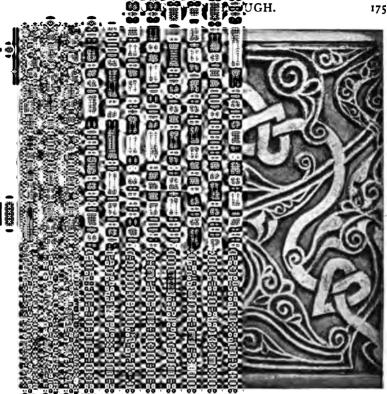
The artist belongs by temperament to the irritable race of poets. But give any "human boy" a knife and he will begin to notch something, give him a sharp-pointed instrument and he will scratch the nearest smooth surface with it.

No wonder, then, that mankind did the same, that the caveman scratched the bones strewn about his haunt, that the South Sea savage notched the handle of his axe. As it happens, the aboriginal forms of fidgetting hint at the two directions in which artistic ingenuity has since developed itself; the caveman scratched the likeness of a mammoth or some other living thing, the islander evolved by notching forms of ornament not to us at all events suggesting life or nature. It is with this more ornamental development of design that we have to do. Pictorial art is not our story. The leisure of the savage accounts for the profusion of his





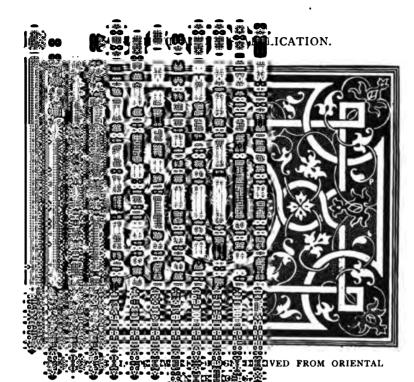




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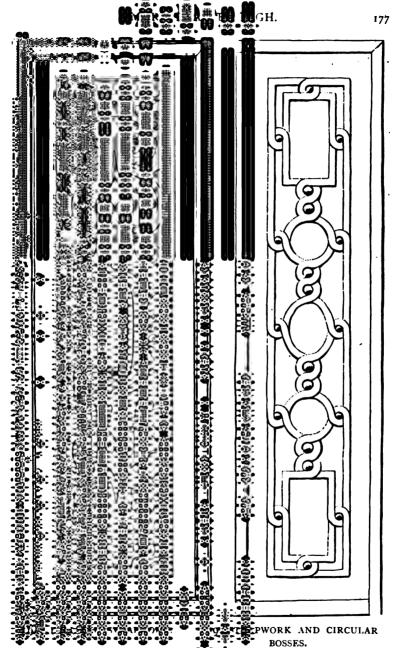
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> in ornament. Those, ografient generally are much बर्द्धाः overloaded with ornarich and yet not "overputs us too much out of Lastern artificer will use









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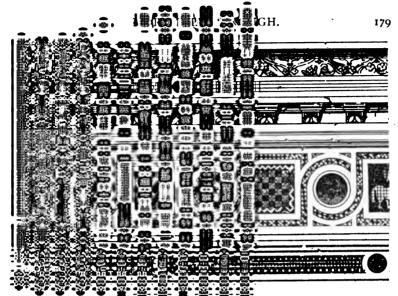
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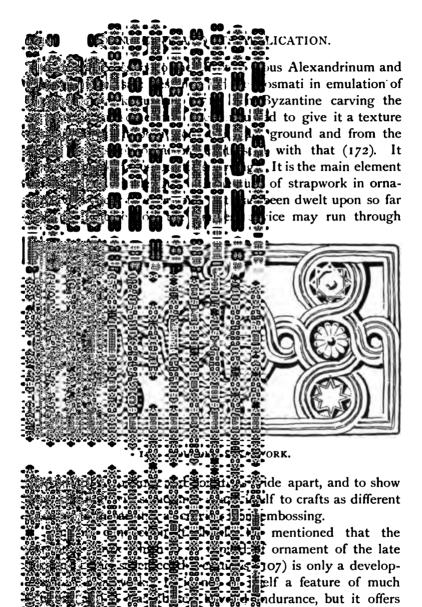
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wench carvers, however, surface of the straps, to that, and making gave life to this most when the slight foliation of the straps, as it seems to design a specific to the straps, as it seems to design a specific to the slight foliation of the straps, as it seems to design a specific to the slight foliation of the straps, as it seems to design a specific to the straps, and and with the richer

in strapwork a means method of work. It was a surface and texture,

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beautiful wood or metal or whatever material is worth showing--and by no means easy to get.

The proportion of ornament to plain surface is, then, partly a question of East and West, partly of the material whose surface may or may not be worth preserving. We are led astray from our national sparingness of enrichment by facilities of too easy production. Unhappily, too, ornament is a very convenient cloak for the many sins of manufacture. Were it not for these considerations, economy (which is supposed to rule the day) would be for once on the side of art and keep us in the way of reticence. Luxurious ornament is no sin against good taste-only it is more difficult to restrain than coldly calculated enrichment. The normal taste is towards a preponderance of lean; some like more fat; a few have appetites not to be cloved by any surfeit of richness-if only they can digest it! artist should know how far he can safely go in the indulgence of his appetite for ornament. Enough is all the feast for him. If he has any doubt, let him be advised to use as little as possible, he should design that little all the better that he has no more of it to do. And enough is reached sooner than we think. The man who hesitates as to whether he has reached it, has very possibly overshot the mark already. any case the danger of too great restraint is as nothing in comparison with that of excess. Unless he is confident that further enrichment is wanted it will be safe to conclude that he has indulged already if not in too much ornament in quite ornament enough.

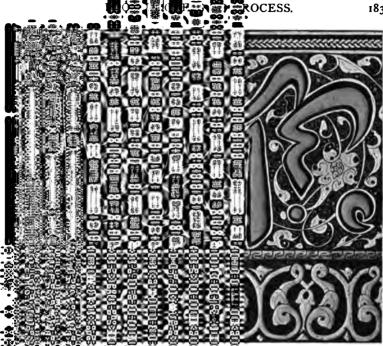
X. FROM PROCESS TO PROCESS.

Scratched ornament on clay—Picked out pattern in paint upon pottery or glass or gilding—Colour rubbed into incised lines—Patterns impressed in plaster and painted or enamelled—From incising to inlay, to niello, to damascening, to enamel—Champlevé and cloisonné enamel—The relation of ivory, etc., inlaid with precious stones, to champlevé, and of mosaic of encloisoned jewels to cloisonné enamel—Enamel in relation to goldsmith's work—Various kinds of enamel.

IT is not for a moment suggested that, convenient as it may be to have halting places on the road, the course of design should be hindered in its development or stopped short. All that is urged is that it may be as well not to go on blindly, but to pause from time to time, and ask oneself what is to be gained—whether something may not be lost—by going further. There is not much fear of holding back the artist by such advice. He is by temperament not of the easily contented sort. And, as will have been seen, one process has a way of leading on to another, and by such gradual succession that progress is inevitable: the artist finds himself across the border of a neighbouring process before he is so much as aware that he is trespassing.

The simple device of scratching on wet clay with a point—practised by the first savage who ever thought of ornamenting his rude pottery, of digging into it with a knife, or otherwise impressing it (as the Assyrians did when they dug the cuneiform inscriptions into their written tablets)—gives us the art of sgraffitto. But the simple process of scraping out ornament goes much further than is commonly supposed. A

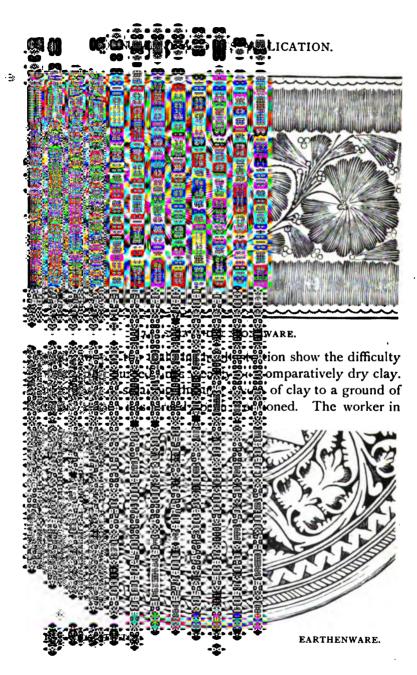


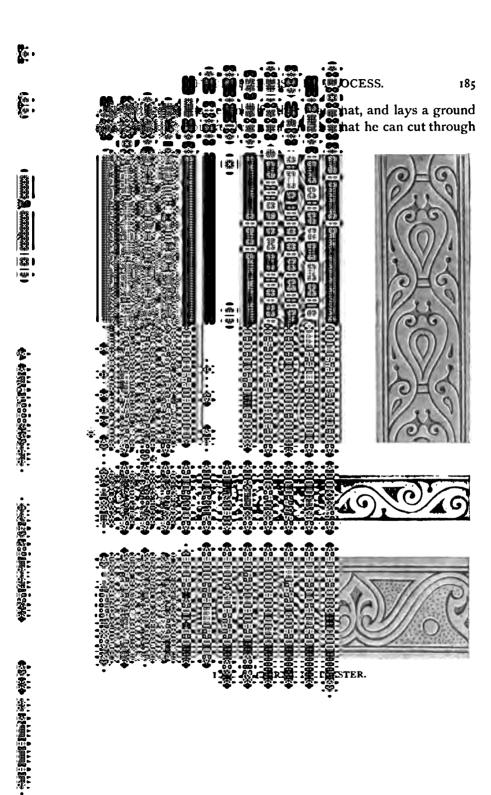


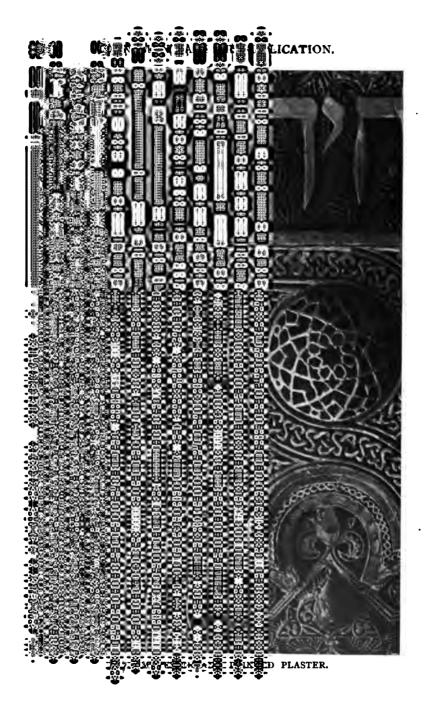
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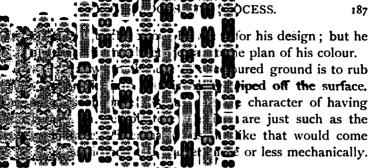
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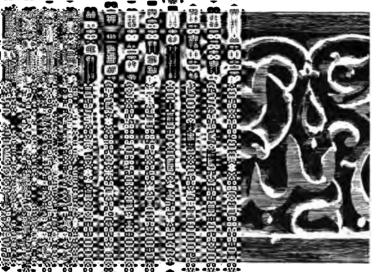






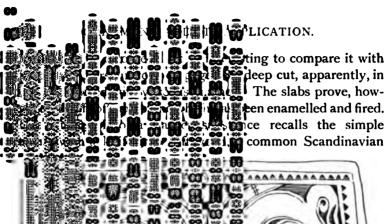


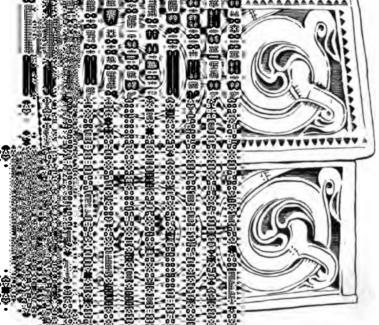




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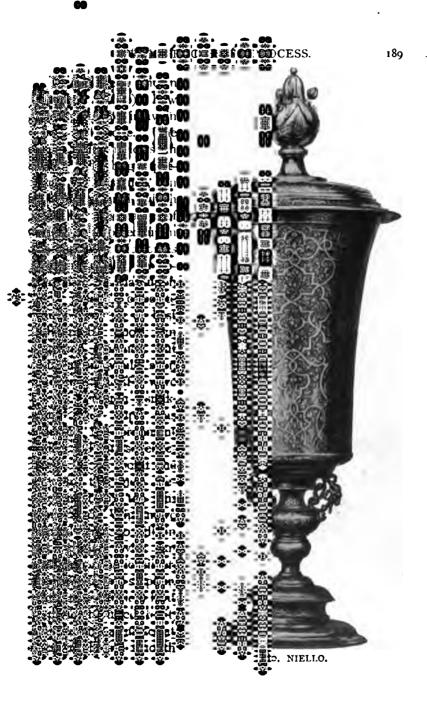


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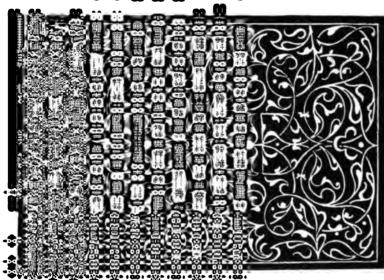


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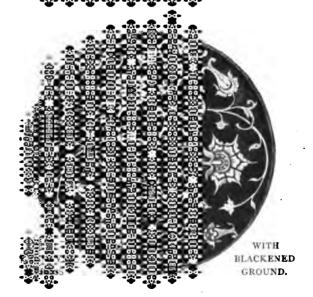
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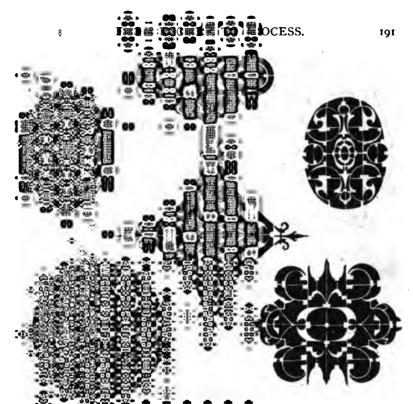
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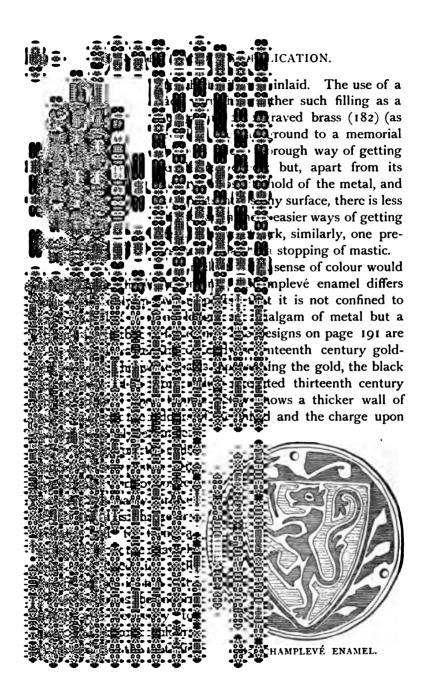


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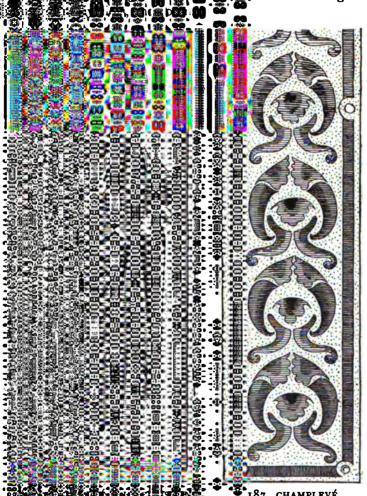
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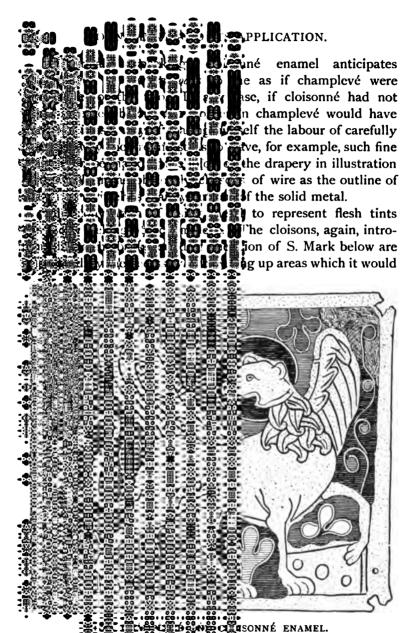


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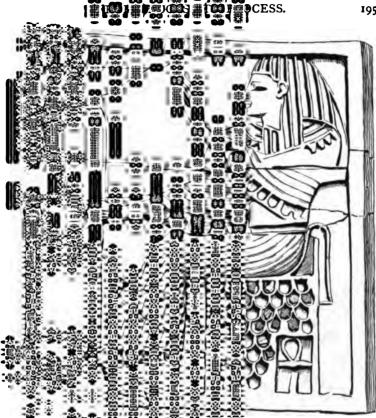
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187. CHAMPLEVÉ ENAMEL.









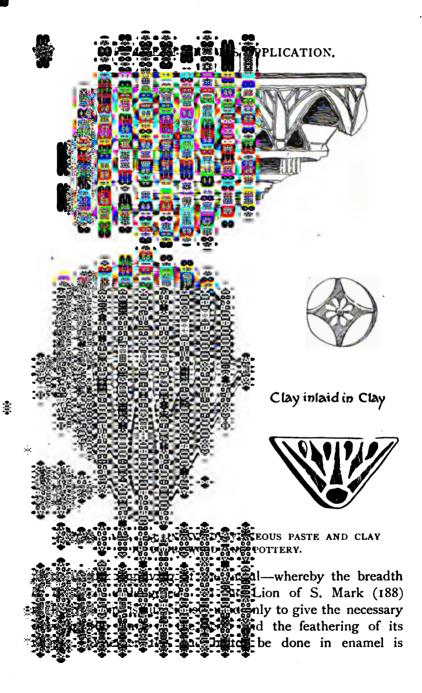
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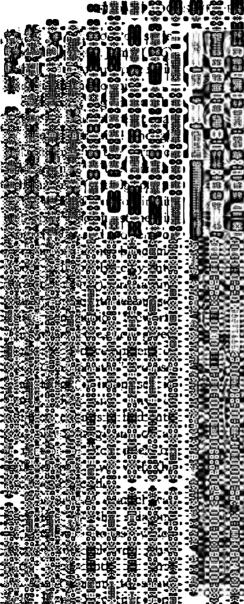
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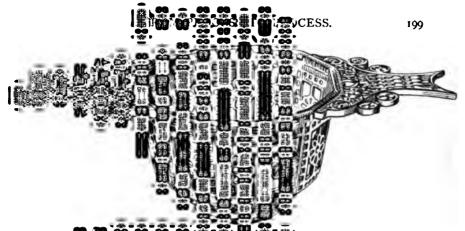
ation In the Byzantine t in fretwork of gold.

ut cut through, giving

the kind called "plique of cloisonné enamel is through. It is more Ind may have been the hat the glazier's Balling the windows were of f glass were embedded. at is supposed to be the mustant preceded by, and was or less precious; and 證記記tation of them it was ngely cemented into the constructed for it. The n of a glass paste was 🛣 🗮 tage in advance, which developed into an art tself. The cloisons of Ave Græco-Bactrian armulet were devised to form c for inlay, not enamel, the same thing occurs in ptian jewellery (22). It the common practice nanglo-Saxon goldsmith's to encloison slices of great (201). In the Meroian fibula (200) it is arred glass that is set in cloisons of gold upon a to a pze foundation. That 🗘 such as this was the



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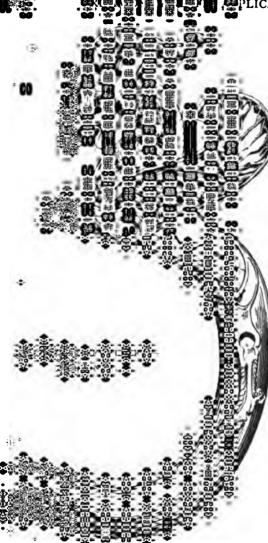
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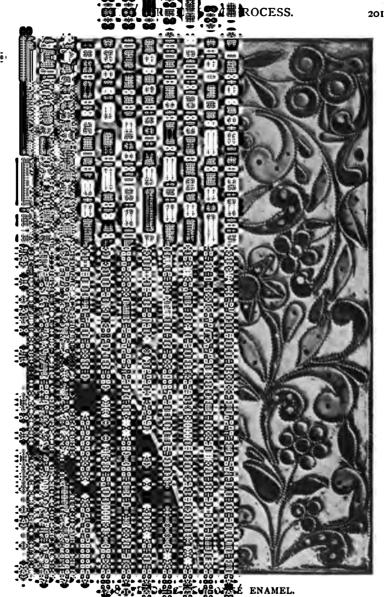


shown what beautiful colour may be got in this way, the network of bright cloisons harmonising it; but there is a quality in the surface of the paste as it floats in melting over the ground of its cell which is also well worth preserving.

The only further step in enamelling which need be described is suggested by the use of translucent enamel, which shows naturally lighter or darker according to its depth. This gives opportunity for a new effect, gradation of tone: goldsmith the

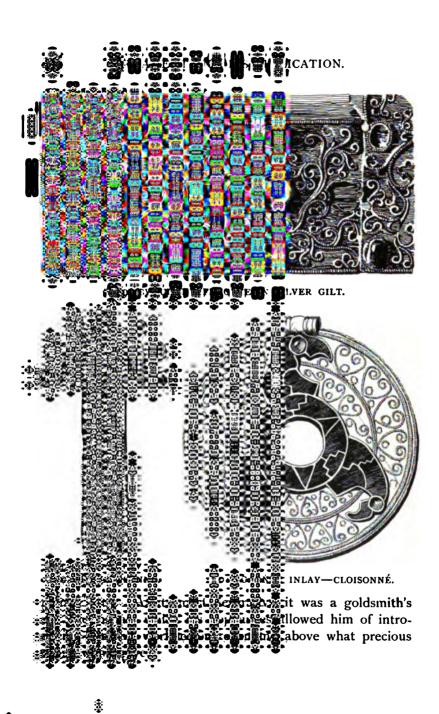
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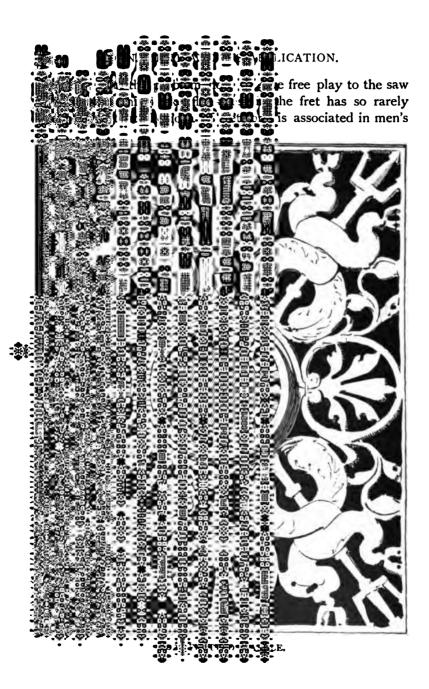
XI. ALLIED PROCESSES.

Pierced carving a sort of fretwork—Fretcutting; its conditions; its relation to material—The fret-saw—The stencil plate a fret—Ties—Design for stencilling—Japanese stencils—Ties in lace—Ties in stencilling not to be effaced—Stencilling and embroidery the artist's personal means of manufacture; an exercise in practical design—Fret and inlay—Counterchange—Goldsmith's filigree and blacksmith's spiral ornament—Wire and couched cord—Poinctillé "tooling" and nailwork.

SOME processes are more nearly allied than is supposed. A carver has only to sink the ground of his design deep enough, and he pierces the plank, lets daylight through. This carving "à jour" as the French call it, introduces quite a new element into design—the necessity, namely, of tying the design together in such a way as to prevent its falling to pieces, and in the second place to make it strong enough for its practical purpose.

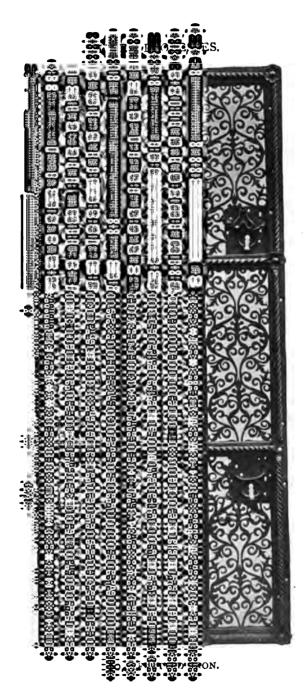
The shape of the background spaces in his design is never quite absent from the consideration of the designer, but in pierced work they need more than ever his attention, silhouetting as they do the ornament, and calling perhaps almost as much attention to themselves as to it. Free-standing ornament such as that of Tullio Lombardo overleaf presents quite a new problem in design.

The fret-saw has not, it must be owned, had a happy effect upon design. The endeavour to avoid the continual removal and refixing of the blade or the reversing of its action has led, naturally enough, to long sweeping lines, which may be regarded as characteristic of this way of

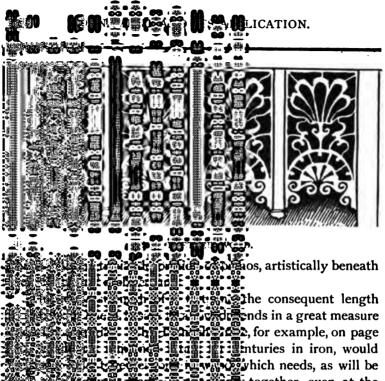












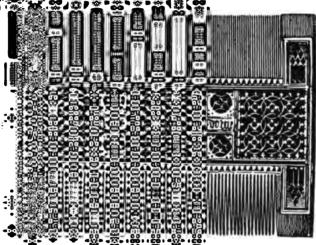
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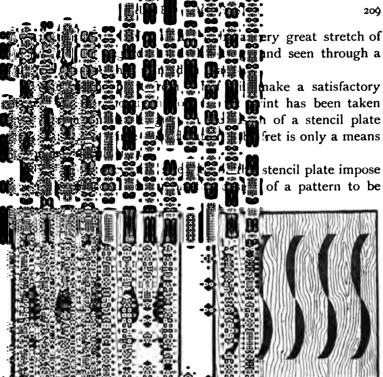
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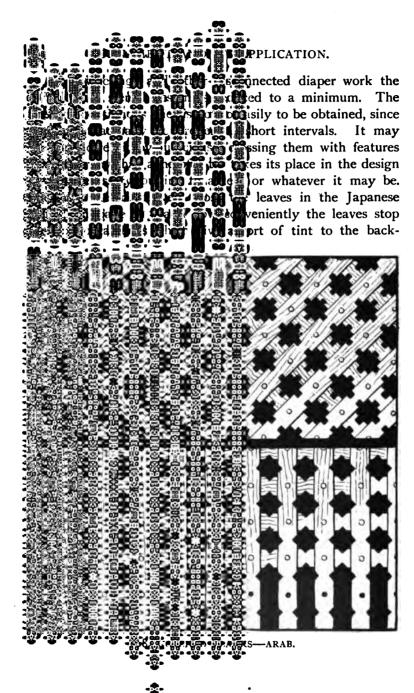
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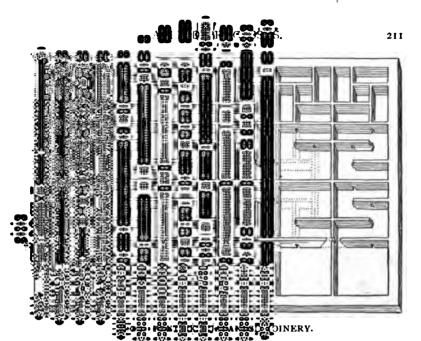


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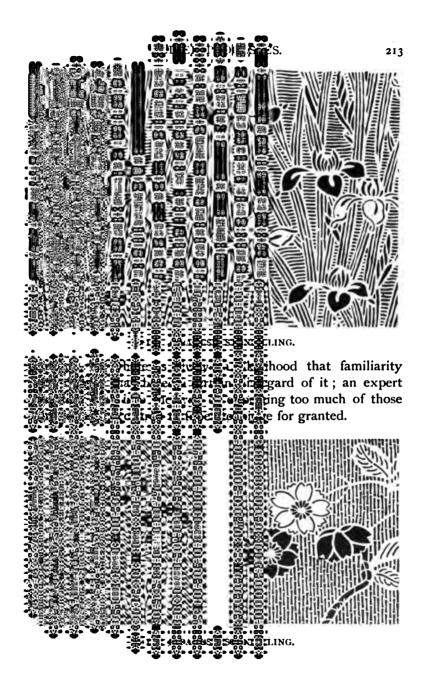
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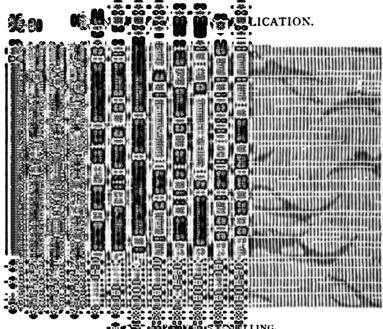
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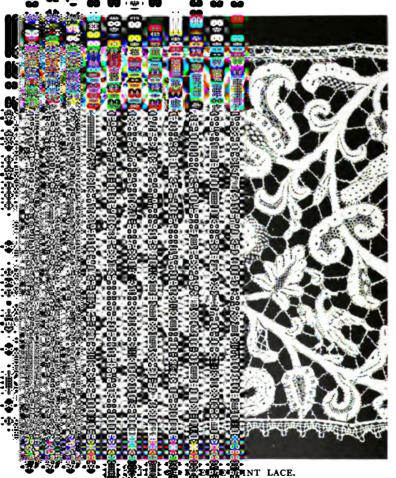
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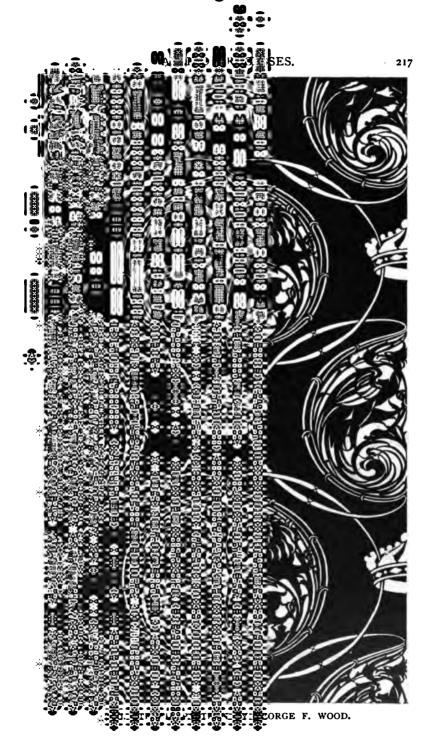
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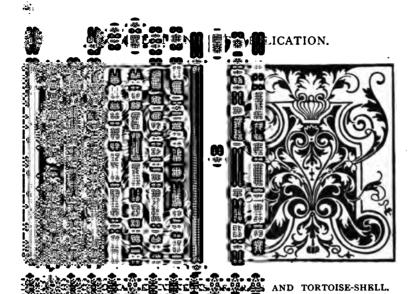
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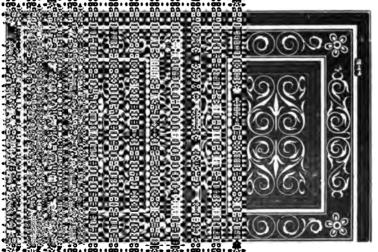


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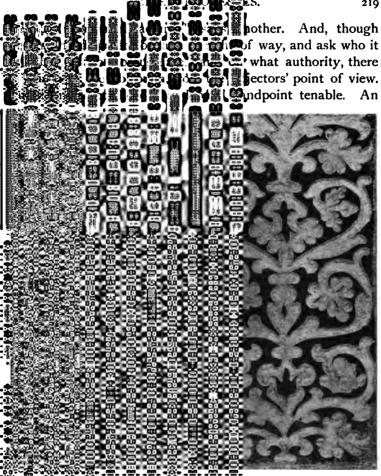
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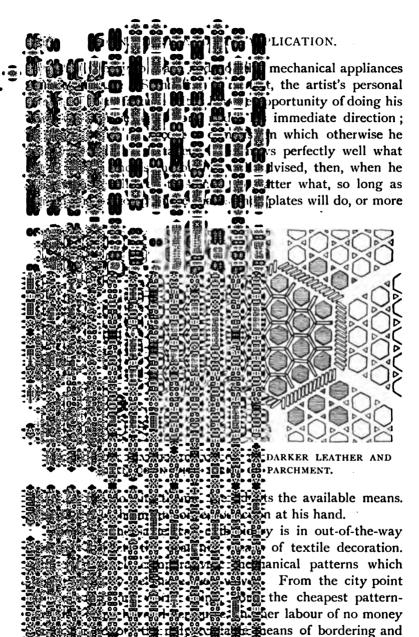


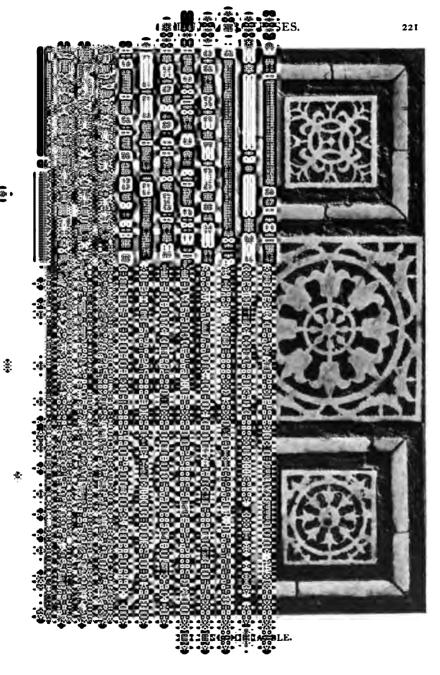


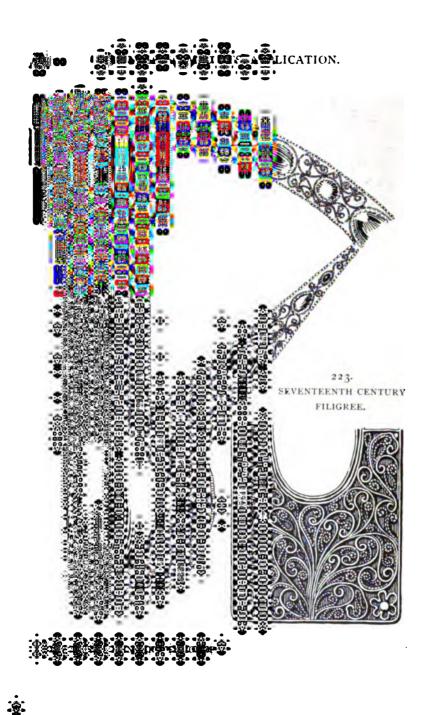
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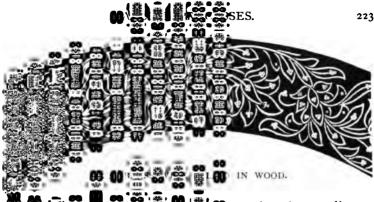
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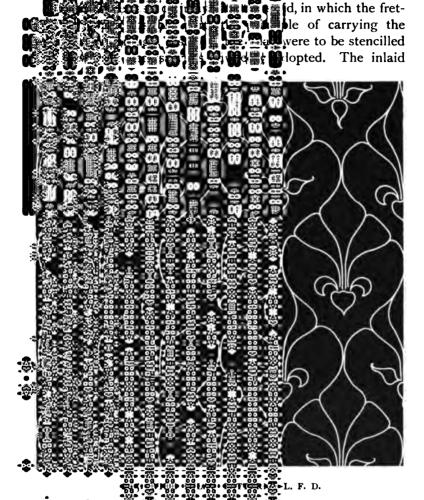
as much the necessary of in marquetry the fretbeing no occasion for long sweeping lines are the pattern seems sometimes to float too free in consequence (page 218), that is in part at least the fault of the designer.

It naturally suggests itself to the inlayer working in veneers to cut both ground and pattern at one operation of the saw. (He can in fact cut half a dozen or more.) He has then only to separate his two veneers, to lift out the fretted pattern from the one veneer and lay in its place the corresponding part of the other. Economy suggested a further step, to utilise the two remaining portions of the veneer (otherwise waste) in a similar way. So to scheme a design that the two resulting panels (page 218) are equally or almost equally satisfactory, is a triumph of inventive ingenuity. One of the means employed in boulle to that end was to adopt a plan of composition according to which the ornament was partly in brass on tortoise-shell, partly in tortoise-shell on brass.

The idea of counterchanging frets occurred, as a matter of course, to others than marquetry inlayers, to the embroiderer, for example, who had only to fret a design out of velvet (page 219) and to overlay the two resulting strips on to another material, to get striped bed hangings in which the pattern counterchanged. The apparent difference in strength between the two scrolls in the illustration comes of the cord which masks the sewing down confounding itself, in the one case with the ground, and in the other with the pattern. An Oriental, working in close cloth, would actually have inlaid one material into the other.

Another example of an onlaid fret occurs in the case of a Roman shoe in the British Museum (page 220) white leather over green, sewn down with flat strips of gilded parchment which complete the pattern.

The elaborate openwork designs in cut cloth on ladies' capes and so forth are (presumably) cut in the expeditious way that the wholesale tailor cuts out the parts of a garment—namely, with a circular knife which, like a fret-saw, cuts through layer upon layer of cloth at the same time—the worker having simply to guide the solid pile of cloth.



The reason of the state of the

white marble is stronger tied together in that way—and has a satisfying look of strength which is also to the good; and the network of white lines not only gives consistency to the design, but softens the contrast of light and dark, screening the strong colour as it were with a delicate veil of lace. Just so the net of grey cement lines softens the geometric lines of Opus Alexandrinum, and the bright brass lines of Chinese cloisonné enamel put crude colour almost out of the question. I do not know that the effect of champlevé enamel has ever yet been produced by soldering a fretted sheet of metal on to a plain sheet, and so providing the necessary cells for the vitreous paste; but the bowl of the Byzantine cup on page 199 is neither more nor less than a fret designed to hold precious stones (compare page 198).

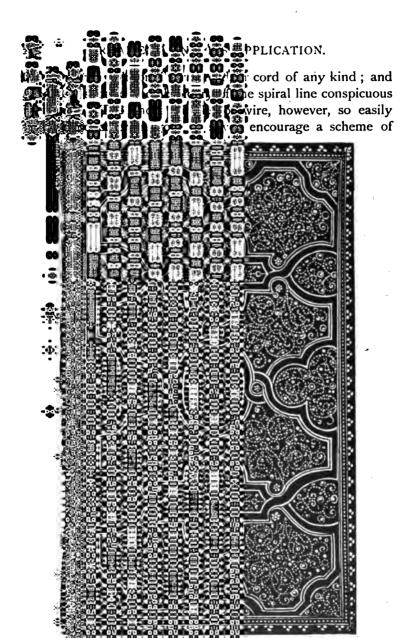
Some few other allied, if not related, processes may here be mentioned. It is impossible not to remark the similarity in the design of filigree and of wrought-iron work. What it was natural for the blacksmith to do with bands of iron it was natural for the goldsmith to do with gold and silver wire. And, as a matter of history, he bent it, in the seventeenth century as in the tenth, into spirals which are in miniature what the scrolls of a chapel screen are in large. Indeed, the Genoese and Maltese artificers of to-day do the same thing still, only carrying it to a further point of minute elaboration. Ornament such as that on page 222 beginning and ending with spiral lines, closely compact at their incurling extremities to give mass (the contrast by the way between plain and twisted wire is effective), is typical of filigree work. Perhaps the goldsmith confined himself too closely to the convenient spiral. The wirework from the North-West Provinces of India on page 223, brass inlaid in pale brown wood, though not a favourable specimen of such work, is a pleasing departure from the too, too curly scroll. A simpler diaper in wire inlay is shown on page 225.

What is convenient to the wireworker is hardly less so to

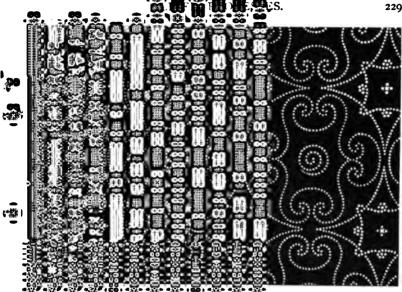
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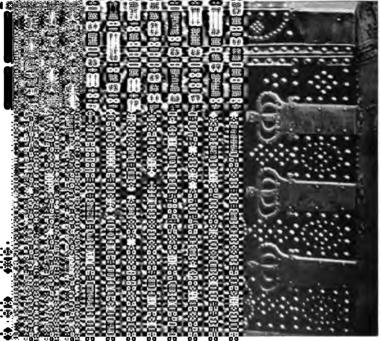
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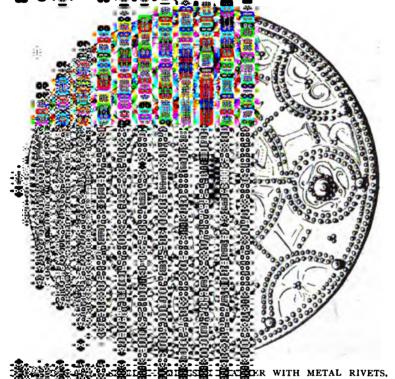
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mitive leather "targe," not only constructively ats. The combination b Roy's shield (above) one the less effective

XII. LIKE TO LIKE.

The danger of added ornament—Should be inseparable—Like to like—Incrusted ornament in goldsmith's work—Carved inlay—Glass upon glass, in the form of prunts and threads—Cast and stamped ornament—Expedients permissible in rude work not allowable in work more pretentious—Wedgwood ware—Mechanical aids to manufacture not a modern device—Their use and abuse.

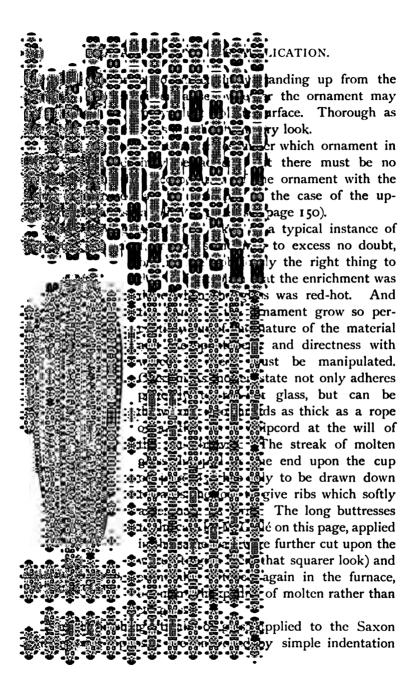
ORNAMENT being, rightly understood, a part of the thing ornamented, there is some risk always in adding it to a thing already fashioned. But the danger is imminent when it comes to incrusting a surface with added ornament. It has a way of appearing to be stuck on, not part of the thing. And it is the appearance of being added which is so objectionable. There are delightful forms of decoration which are always, as it were, put on-embroidery for example. And yet that is no less admirable than tapestry, which is worked into the warp, and goes to make the texture which it decorates. The point seems to be that, though ornament may, and in many cases ought to, show frankly how it was done; though it may, and often ought to, look like what it is, it ought never to look as if it could be removed. Once added, it should seem to be inseparable. That is more likely to be the case if it is applied at a comparatively early stage of the work-relief in clay, for instance, before the vase is fired, in glass whilst yet it has to be submitted to the furnace. In these cases the ornament is in the material of the thing ornamented. There is an obvious and satisfying fitness always in the application of like to like, of metal to metal, glass to glass, clay to clay, silk to silk. It is something to feel that the thing is of ere may be the further here is then no danger here is then no danger. In the case of anytic to be fused sometic to be fused some

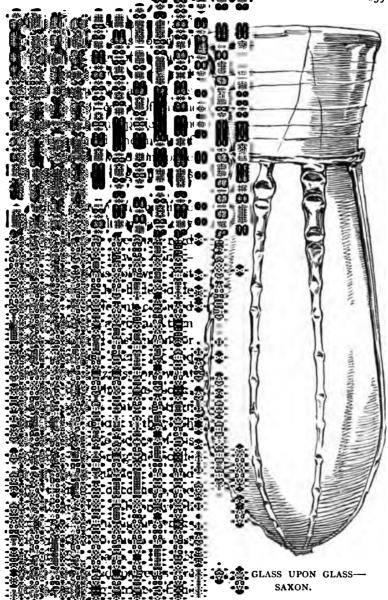
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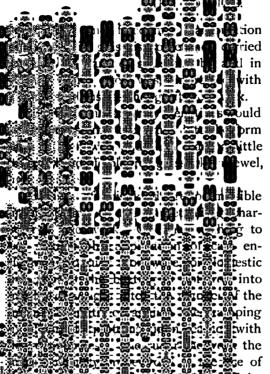
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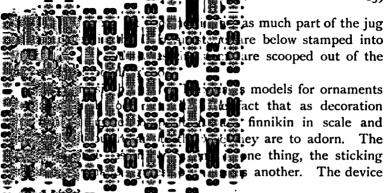
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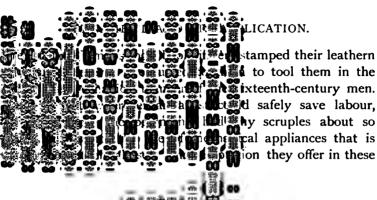


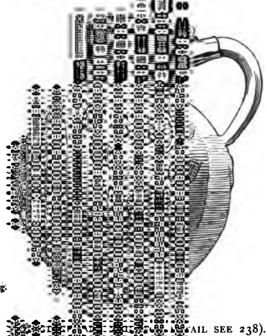


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XIII. PARTNERSHIPS.

The limits of a craft—Partnerships between Joiner and Carver; Turner and Inlayer; Glazier and Glass Painter; Glazier and Mosaicist; Silversmith and Glassblower; Cabinetmaker and Locksmith; Bookbinder and Silversmith—Relief and colour—Intaglio and colour—Modelling and mosaic—The concert of the Crafts.

A FAIR inference to be drawn from chapters past is: that a workman does well to keep within the limits of his craft, to aim at precisely what that will allow him to do, and neither to waste his energies in striving after the impossible, nor to stultify himself by doing at great cost of labour something that could better and more easily have been done by some other means. "Let the shoemaker," in short, "stick to his last."

But there is no reason why he should not go into partner-ship—so long as the partners are well assorted. And there are some undertakings better conducted in partnership than single-handed. Mason and carver, joiner and inlayer, gold-smith and jeweller, have from the first been associated together, and enamelling was at its best when it was bound up with goldsmith's work and not a painter's art simply.

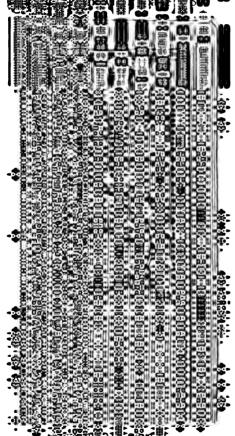
Two or more of the crafts we are now accustomed to keep separate were in old days commonly practised by the same man. The slight carving necessary to the completion of linenfold panelling (68, 240) came quite within the scope of the joiner—and the gougework enriching so many an old oak chest or settle (82) was without a doubt his doing—the last touch to his handiwork, the expression of his pride and

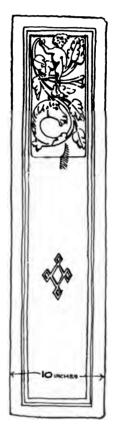
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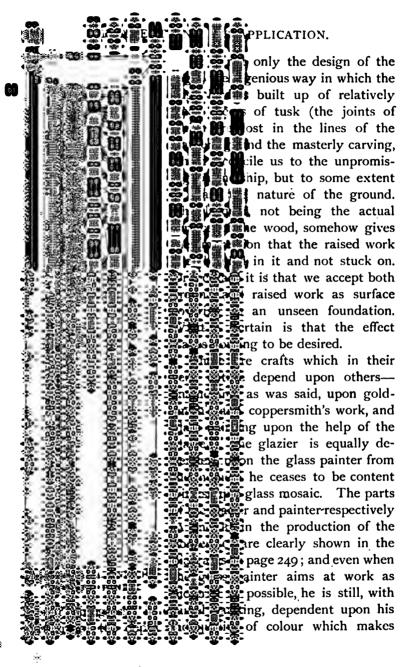


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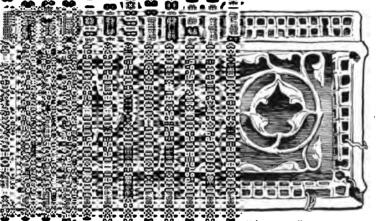




242. SHOWING POSITION OF 241.



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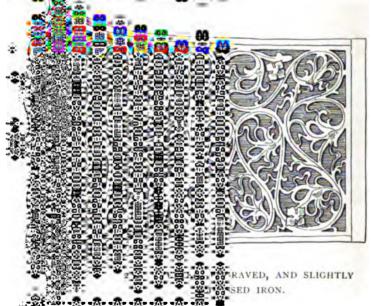
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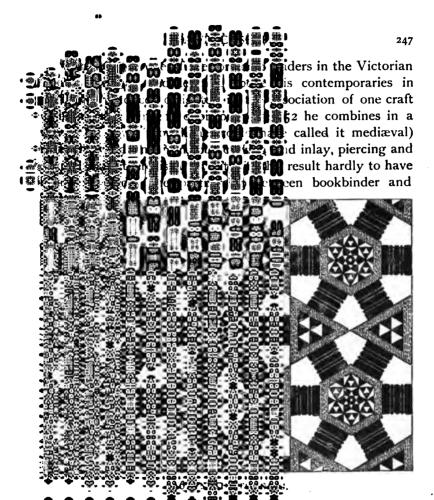
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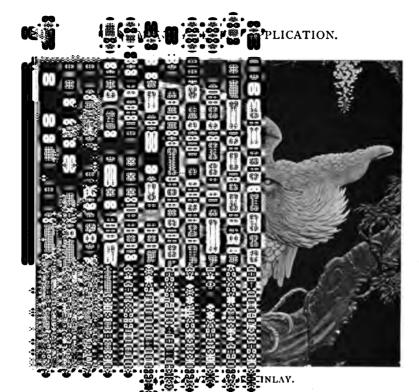
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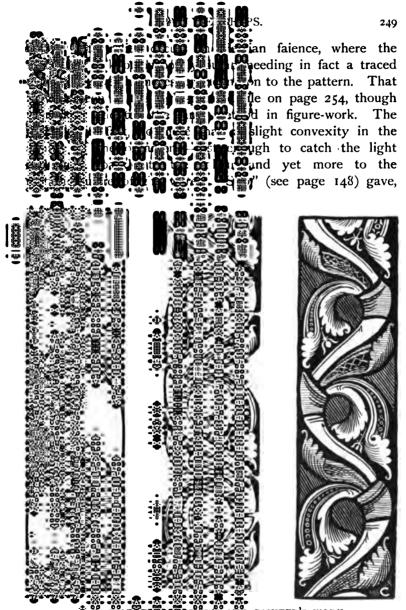


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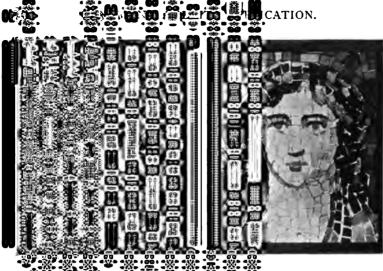


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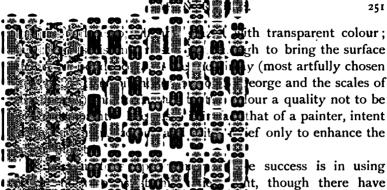


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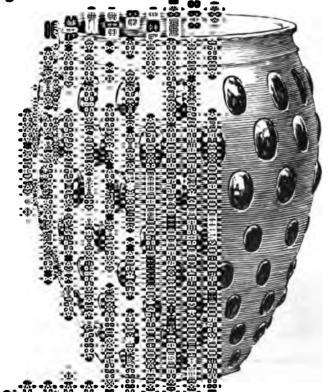
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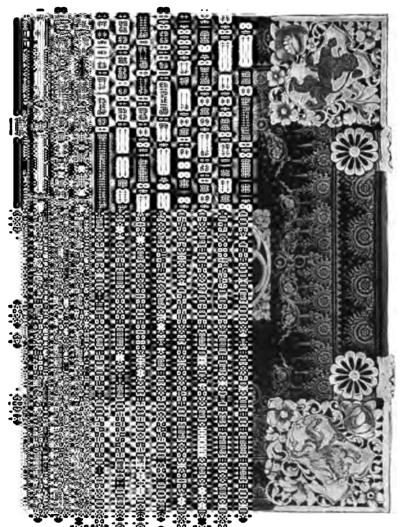


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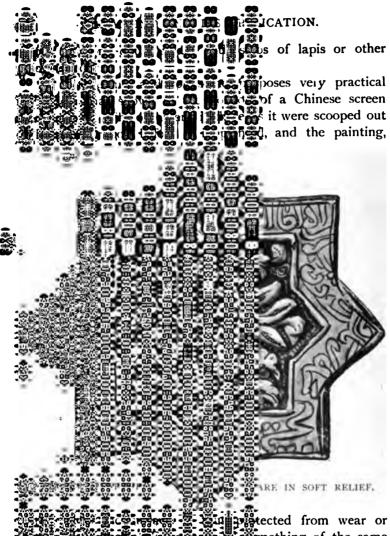
In the case of com-Ined colour and relief De first question is ways which is to be 🔓 predominant importnce. The one must subsidiary to the her. The difficulty subordinating colour b form is simplified w confining it to the ackground as in the autiful panel from he Bishop's throne at avello (256), where ae interstices between to carving are filled in ith gilt and coloured ass mosaic; but the olour probably did ot stop there; the brcular cavities now







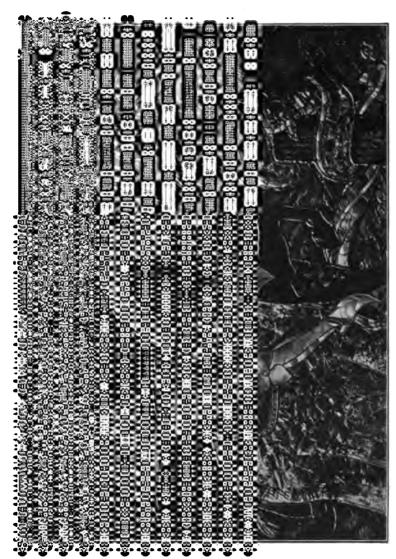
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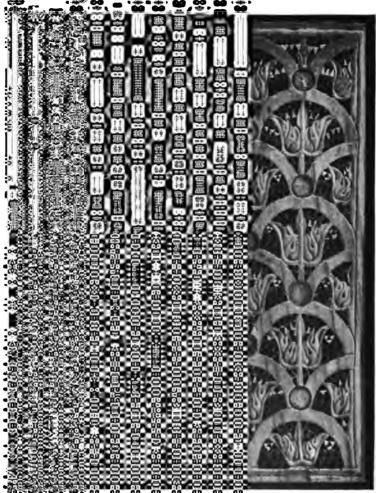






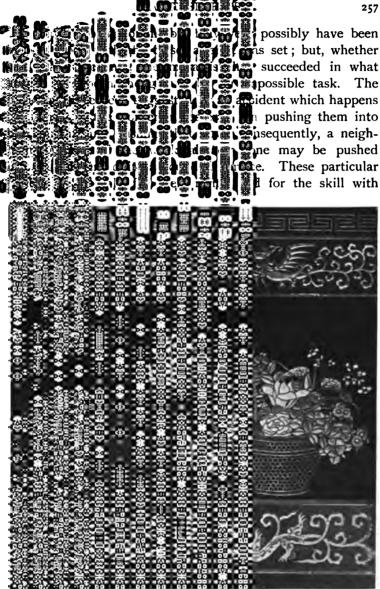
254. PANEL IN MOTHER-O'-PEARL AND GESSO, BY F. MARRIOTT.

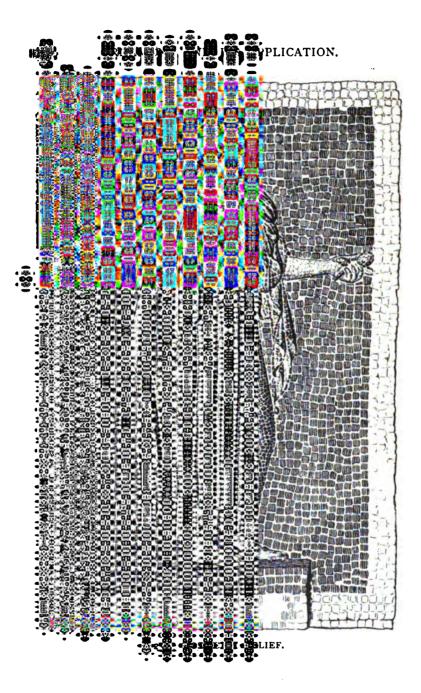
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which they are done, exceedingly interesting. They represent, need it be said? rather the kind of thing one is delighted to come upon for once, than what it is advisable to do in mosaic—a characteristic quality of which is that sort of flatness (never absolutely flat but really a slightly undulating or buckling surface) which comes, as one may see at Venice or Palermo, of trying to embed tesseræ as evenly as may be in moist cement.

It is difficult in some cases to determine whether compound work is the result of a partnership between different men or only between different methods of work practised by one and the same man. Any doubt, where two have been at work, is proof at least that they have worked in concert. The danger of calling in outside aid is that the ally may turn usurper. In the case of a partnership merely between the handicrafts practised by one man the only danger is lest he should not be master of them all. Even then he may know enough of them for his purpose. The important thing is that he should have a very definite purpose and strictly subordinate to it the crafts he calls to his assistance.

XIV. PRACTICAL DESIGN.

The technique of design—The distribution of ornament—Composition—Masses and lines—System—Symmetry—Recipes—Flat treatment—The function of shading—Variety—Proportion—How far rules are of use—Full and open pattern—Emphasis.

IT has been attempted, so far, to show the relation of ornament to technique. There is also what may be called the technique of design—its application, that is to say, to its position, place, and purpose, quite apart from the material used or the tools and processes employed—the question in short of the distribution of design. The painter's answer to it is "composition." But he has only, as it were, to make a plain statement. The designer of ornament has to undergo the severest crossexamination. He has not merely to distribute his design over a rectangular area of his own choosing, but to accommodate it to a shape and proportions as to which he has no choice. There is no use in pretending to lay down rules for the disposition of design. It is so entirely dependent upon circumstances. Nor is it advisable to map out the lines on which ornament might be distributed over a given surface. Even then much depends upon its purpose, place, and surroundings generally. And, were it possible, it would only be to make the more effective arrangements of line and mass tedious by insisting upon them, and to hinder the exercise of that personal bias which goes so far towards individual design. It is in planning that originality has scope. New forms are only once in a while to be evolved, but infinite variety is possible in arrangement of forms free to us but not our personal property. A teacher may with advantage demonstrate to his pupils on the blackboard the lines on which a given problem is to be solved; but anything like the dogmatic laying down of rules would be hurtful, if it were not futile.

The only way of learning composition is to compose. No better exercise could be given to the student than to set him to plan a panel to take its place among existing panels or to form part of a predetermined scheme of decoration. In the criticism of such designs the teacher would naturally point out where they failed, and why, and how they might be made better; he might in that way impart without pedantry something equivalent to not-to-be-written rules of composition.

A designer goes to work somewhat according to his temperament. One man will attack the problem with a rush; another will creep up to it. One will begin by planting a shape (or shapes) upon his panel, supporting it by subsidiary shapes, and finally connecting them by the lines necessary to his composition; another will prepare the way for his design by a more or less geometric groundwork, on which he will build up the lines of his pattern, eventually giving point and focus to it by the introduction of masses judiciously breaking the monotony of line. And either of them is equally right. It depends upon what he wants and what he can do. If, for example, a man can trust himself to start with irregular forms arbitrarily disposed, accidental patches as it were upon his panel—why not? though another might find it impossible to connect them by any system of lines whatever. plan for him, at all events, is to start with some orderly system determining the distribution of any prominent features in the design. It may suggest also the size and shape of them; but it does not follow that because a designer starts on systematic lines that he may not in the end depart from them widely-so widely that only those who look for the scaffolding would ever suspect it to have been employed. is an element of design worthy of all respect; but it has been

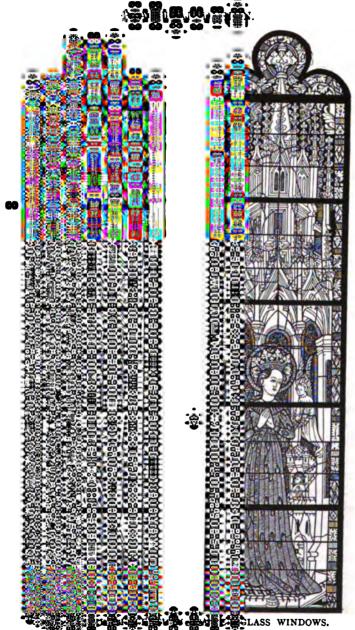
made a fetish. It is the obvious way of arriving at balance. It is the scientific formula that may help us through a difficulty out of which impulse has failed to show the way—no more than that. It is a convenient working rule, invaluable in subsidiary forms of pattern design, but by no means a law, and a very poor substitute for that just sense of balance which it is the designer's part to cultivate. A designer depends upon his wits.

. There are other "recipes" for design which have been raised to the dignity of rules, nay, more, to be articles of a faith rather ridiculously credulous—and perniciously, if they effectively fence off the adventurous from fields of design which would give wider scope for personal faculty. Happily the adventurous spirit is not so easily debarred from the path before it.

One of the bogies of the doctrinaire is flat treatment—a quality sometimes regarded as essential to decoration. Only in a very limited sense is that so. Any effect of relief disturbing a surface which use or sentiment warrants us in expecting to be flat is, to say the least, ill judged. Beyond that an artist of taste must be trusted to know what degree of relief is admissible—say in wall painting or stained glass. The projection of the canopies in the Decorated windows opposite is unsatisfactory; but there are windows of later date far more pictorial with which there is less fault to be found.

William Morris explained very well the function of shading in ornament not actually in relief: which is, not to give roundness, but to explain form. So much shading as may be necessary to do that is not to be denied to the designer of ornament. When he attempts to give roundness and relief to it he is sure to offend some whose judgment carries with it the weight of something like authority.

Variety is an element hardly to be dispensed with in ornament, though there are occasions when the insistence of



monotonous repetition is more to the purpose; but where variety should be introduced, in what form, and in what proportion, there is no possible saying.

Proportion itself is a subject on which there is little more to be said than that almost everything depends upon it. Still it is less a matter of calculation than of feeling, too subtle to be put into words—even in a given case. As to rules of proportion they are (like other rules) wisdom after the event. We deduce from perfect work what we call rules of proportion. It may be doubted whether perfect work ever resulted from conscious obedience to such rules. Or if it did (and Wren may be called to witness that it did) it was not so much a work of art as of science.

Nevertheless, though the artist whose proportions please does not work them out mathematically—a knowledge of the ratios which have worked out satisfactorily is of undoubted use in enabling a man to rectify at once what is amiss in his own work. Canons may be defied by genius; but if when we fail our failure explains itself to us as the consequence of having violated an established rule, we are on the way, realising that, to amend our misdoing. What Ruskin said about perspective is true up to a certain point. You cannot by rules of perspective draw the elaborate tracery of a flamboyant window or the cuspings of a Gothic arch, and must in the difficult drawing of such features depend upon draughtsmanship. But his inference that it is consequently not worth while to master a science which suffices only to solve the simpler problems, is not altogether just. A knowledge of perspective helps at every turn to keep the draughtsman right in his free drawing. Just in the same way rules of proportion come continually to the help of the designer, though he may set out with no canon of foregone proportion. All rules bore an artist; but for the student, at least, they are helpful, and needful until the time comes for breaking away from rule: he will want no telling when that day arrives.

It is something to know the proportions which are at all events safe, still more to be aware of those least conducive to satisfactory results—the panel for example which is too nearly square, or disproportionately long. A teacher will, of course, give his pupils object lessons on such points; but in the end an artist will depend upon himself. He may like a shorter or a narrower panel than the approved proportions give. He will work out the problem for himself; and in the end he will depend less upon measurement than upon his eye.

Given the proportions, then, of a panel or other space to be enriched, the problem is how to distribute his design over it; how proportion the ornament, rich or rare, to its ground? All that can be told him for his guidance is, that the most dangerous course is midway between the two: a half and half effect is never satisfactory. The actual proportion of ground to ornament is not easily to be measured. It has been said that on a well-balanced mediæval shield of arms the charge is equal to its field—the area of the rampant lion, for example, precisely that of the ground not covered by the effigy. that is in reality so, it does not give one that impression; the charge seems to occupy the ground, not to go shares with it; there is no appearance of half and half. It may be doubted whether any composition would be likely to satisfy the eye in which ground and ornament appeared to be more evenly proportioned than as three to five.

Satisfactory ornament generally appears either to cover the ground or leave it rather open. The distribution of the design needs in each case to be thought out; but there is less chance of disguising any want of balance in the parts when the lines of the design confess themselves openly against a plain background. It is for this reason, perhaps, that we all begin by crowding our design as full as possible, and only arrive with experience at the difficult art of making a little ornament occupy the space.

Fulness of pattern does not, however, relieve the designer

from the necessity of distribution even enough but not too even—of balance, that is to say, and of emphasis.

To the designer, more surely than to other artists, art is emphasis. And emphasis is not an after process in design. It begins with its very inception. Where to emphasise, the designer should need no telling. If he does not know the central point or points of his scheme, no one can tell him.

How to emphasise is partly a matter of choice. Emphasis does not mean shouting—though there may be occasion for that. It does not necessarily mean cumulative detail. It may be quite as well secured by reticence as by reiteration. Isolation will give point to a feature, as surely as the pause before or after the word gives it significance. Weight of mass, intensity of colour, strength of line, sharpness of contour, are obvious, but not the only, ways of laying stress upon a point in design. A slight difference in treatment will give accent to it. An angular form will naturally assert itself in the midst of flowing lines. An outline, where the forms generally are not outlined, will have the same effect. The general tendency of the whole design may be towards the significant feature—everything in it may as it were point that way.

Proportion and variety are arrived at by first blocking out the detail in well-defined masses, afterwards perhaps to be so broken up that they are hardly distinguishable. But it is not in the least necessary so to break them up. Some of the most satisfactory masses of ornament are those which have evidently been designed within a definite shape such as the floral ornament which falls within the lines of what is called the Indian shawl pattern. These formal shapes enclosed by no definite line, but given by the grouping of the detail, are a feature in Indian and Persian ornament, to which we have hardly paid attention enough.

XV. OBEDIENT ORNAMENT.

Loyalty to conditions—The natural subservience of ornament to the constructional idea—The point at which it ceases to be natural—Success the only justification of revolt—Undue insistence upon structural subdivisions—Examples, window mullions, wings of a door—Symmetry by implication—Nothing casual in design—Design conforms to the space to be filled—The lines on which a circular design is planned—The lines on which a cylinder or vase is decorated—Contradictory forms—Distortion.

DECORATIVE art in general and ornamental art in particular are pledged, so to speak, to obedience. An artist is free to choose his trade, but not to rebel against conditions to which, by implication, he agreed in choosing it. And if he has in him the stuff of a practical designer he will be loyal to his engagement.

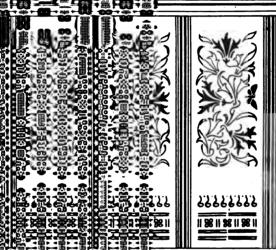
In art, however, no man is called upon to accept a ruling contrary to the clear interests of design and workmanship. It is an axiom of design that decoration should follow and enforce the lines of the thing decorated, from first to last faithfully subserving the constructional idea. It is in the nature of accompaniment always. In theory we all endorse that view. In practice the case is not so clear. It is not always easy to decide between the maker of a thing requiring decoration and the man who takes it up where the other left it. The one may ask more than due subservience, the other may claim unwarranted freedom. It is not, to take the case of an art embracing so many arts, a question between architecture and painting, but between an architect and a painter, either one of whom may be the master mind.

Would any one capable of appreciating the scheme of



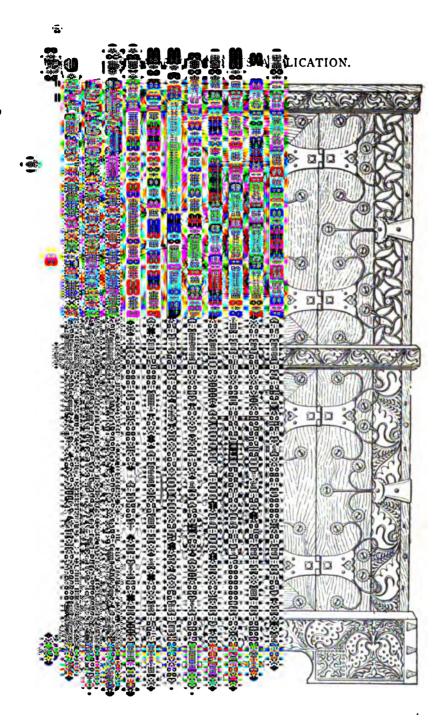
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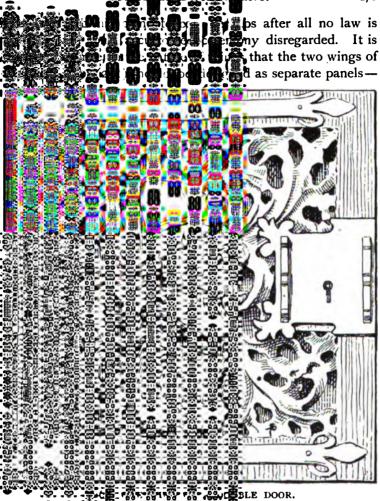
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of right decoration are properly laid down by him. The decorator goes beyond them at the risk of offending against good taste; and, assuming the ground lines to be worthy of respect, he is bound, in practice as in theory, to conform to them. On the other hand, assuming them to be of small account, there is no occasion to pay them a deference not their due. If the rafters of the roof (see opposite), occurring very much as the convenience of building may suggest, give panels not of satisfactory proportion, or result in stripiness, a decorator with the courage of his opinions will not hesitate to correct the proportion or to counteract the tendency. Why enforce or even preserve lines in themselves unpleasing? Why not, if possible, obliterate them? The dictum as to following lines of construction holds good only in so far as they are worth consideration. This may be heterodox teaching; it is none the less true. If existing lines are bad, a decorator worth the name will not hesitate to depart from them—to draw the eye away from them to something on which it can dwell with satisfaction. It rests with the rebel, of course, to justify the assumption that he is a better man than his ostensible master. He must succeed; or he lays himself open to the charge of disobeying conditions—a crime not to be pardoned in design. We are too much inclined to accept structural or other subdivisions as rigid limits of design. There are some who would insist that the separate lights of a Gothic window should be treated separately, and the design on no account run through from one to the other. This seems very much like ignoring the fact that the independence of the lights is at the best only relative—they form always parts of the window. To confine the decorator to the smaller limits is to put broad treatment out of the question. Of course the mullions of a window have to be taken into serious account; in proportion to his ambition the artist increases his risks; but, in spite of all, he has managed before now to come out of it triumphantly. It is just a question of





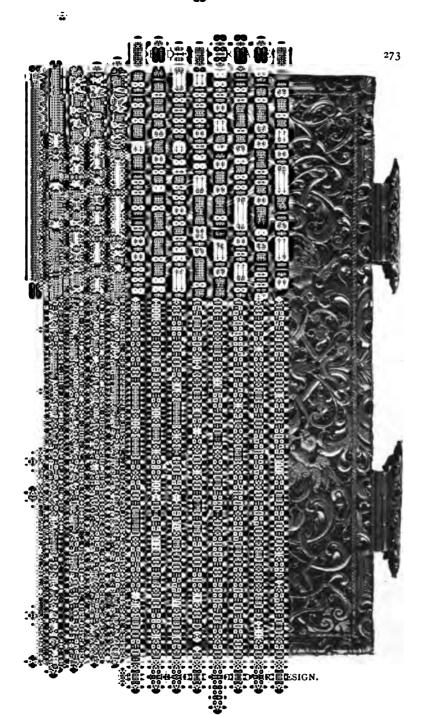
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parative independence, why not? Even in the case where a pilaster divides them, the cabinetmaker may be allowed to emphasise by his design the fact that they fold—which he does by designing them so that, though taken singly they are one-sided, jointly they form a symmetrical composition. practice, adopted, for example, by Boulle, is very different from the later French fashion of ignoring the divisions of the drawers in a commode, and allowing them to cut ruthlessly through delicate ornament wilfully carried across them. the Gothic cabinet on page 270 the joiner has framed his work symmetrically; but the smith has eventually taken the matter into his own hands, and boldly emphasised the sides of the cupboard by making much of his hinges. So far he is within his rights—but not when he goes on to carry his ironwork across the face of the carving. In the small cupboard door on page 271 carver and locksmith have worked harmoniously together. The two sides of a bookcover answer in a measure to the wings of a door—with this difference, that only one side is seen at a time. And yet the side of the cover may be designed so as to be incomplete in itself, the two sides being necessary to the symmetry of the composition. The need of clasps and hinges gave perhaps the hint of this treatment. It proves absolutely satisfactory (262). Imagination makes good what the eye does not see. We accept the binding as a thing complete in itself, though we only see half of it at a time; and we appreciate the way in which the opening of the book is acknowledged in design so obviously one-sided as to imply the other.

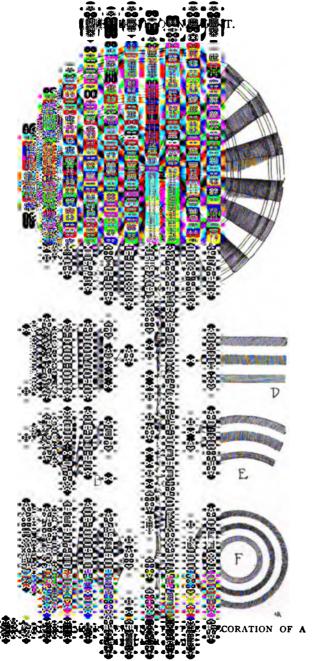
It is not by disregard of controlling forms that a designer succeeds ever in satisfying us with the unaccustomed. Critical opinion is appeased only when the thing that seems perhaps lightly done was the result of deliberate judgment. He must be a man of some account who can reconcile us to something which we did not think could safely be done until he showed us how. Such a man can afford to be



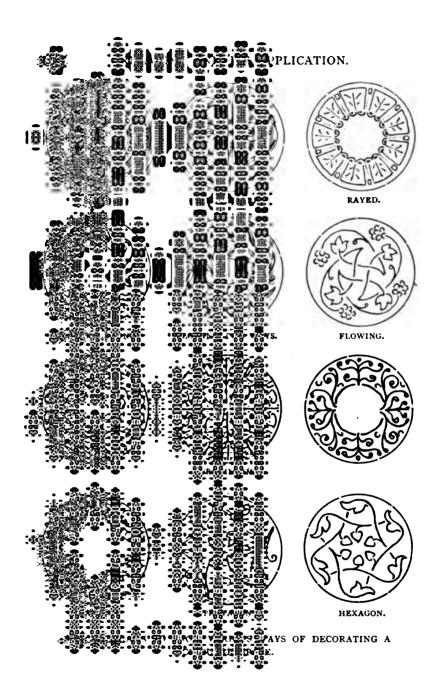
venturesome. If he can go counter to what we have accepted as a rule, and yet give no offence, we may be sure it was not by accident but by deliberate design, very skilfully carried out. There is nothing careless or casual in design. Not even in the little art of ornament.

The space to be filled or the shape to be decorated (determined very often by circumstances quite beyond the control of the designer) is the only possible starting-point for the appropriate planning of design. Further than that it is not possible to say much that will be helpful to the designer. Happily the space or form itself is likely to suggest to the ornamentist the lines of ornament which will preserve and perhaps emphasise proportions that are already admirable, or amend what disproportion there may be.

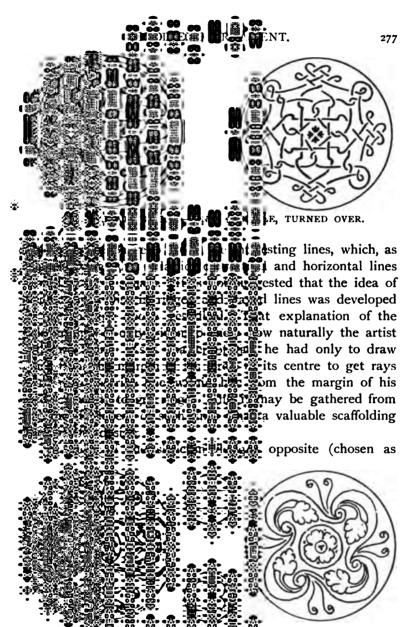
That there are lines into which the decoration of a given space naturally falls is shown in the case of the Do what he may the designer comes circular shape. almost inevitably round to ornament which takes the form of rays or rings, very possibly of the two combined—as surely in fact as the pattern designer (see Pattern Design, pages 54 et seq.) is reduced to setting out his repeat on the basis of a rectangular lattice. In fact, as M. Henri Mayeux has pointed out ("La Composition Decorative"), rings and rays are to the circle what a lattice of square lines is to the rectangle. A strip of paper folded as at A, opposite, has only to be gathered together at one end as at B to give a fanshape, and a longer strip gathered together as at C would give the rayed circle. A striped band as at D wants only bending to give the concentric curved lines at E, and the process of bending has only to be continued. with a longer band, to give the ringed circle as at F. It will be seen that here are no new principles of design involved but only new lines, resulting from the adaptation of vertical and horizontal lines to the circle. The crossing of the two series of lines gives, as in the beautiful ceremonial



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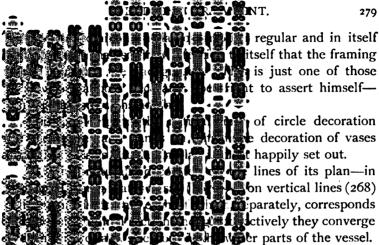
representative types) these lines are apparent — the cruciform patterns like those on page 277 being built up of eight radiating parts. Patterns flowing round, if they are at all compact, form of themselves rings. Other designs upon the page, not conforming to the typical lines, are arrived at by describing within the circle another figure





RIPEWISE DECORATION.







PROPORTIONS.

And lines in these two directions result so surely from the repetition of details across or down the vase that vase decoration may be described as ordinarily built upon the scaffolding of the double series of lines (130).

The form of a vase, cylinder, or any object of that nature seldom allows the introduction into the design of any pronounced form contradictory to it; for the self-evident reason that it disturbs the lines of the vessel, at the same time that it is itself distorted. This consideration has, however, been ignored by the Chinese; and European potters have been prompt to follow the worst peculiarities of their design.

The distortion of the picture on the curved surface of a vase is less objectionable than the discord between the harshly defined patch it makes and the shape of the vase itself. The vanishing view of the figures on it is to some extent condoned in the case of a band or frieze of figure-work. It does not at all events necessitate the placing of the vase so that no part of it is seen to great disadvantage. There is something pleasing in the idea of the continuity of a band of figures round the vase—and the band itself is an acknowledgment of the shape it decorates.

The difficulty of satisfactorily introducing into vase decoration anything in the shape of a medallion has been for centuries past attacked more often with valour than with the discretion which, according to the proverb, is its better part. A comparatively satisfactory instance occurs in the base of the candlestick on page 279, where the embossed medallions are discreetly reduced to about the size of jewels.

The cue of the designer is of course to introduce shapes which explain the form of the vessel, as for example in the melon-shaped or other such divisions commonly employed in metalwork, which lends itself to the beating up of such bulbous forms, contrasted often with delicate chasing or other rich detail (109, 110).

XVI. THE ADAPTATION OF ORNAMENT TO REPETITION.

The test of repeated pattern—Abstract form suited to repetition—Nature not enough, not necessarily the starting-point of ornamental design—Repetition as an element in composition—Forms not amenable to treatment in so far unsuitable for repeated ornament—Human and animal forms—Grotesque—Arabesque—Playfulness in ornament—Summary treatment.

A CONDITION of at least one kind of ornament—pattern—is repetition, which the artist unaccustomed to the restraint implied by it is not very ready to accept. He is given to indulge in compositions which, admirable as they may be in all other respects, lose by repetition. No doubt he schemes his lines and masses with a view to their recurrence, and to the forms they take in repetition—he would be no artist else—but he is disposed to regard all forms as equally available elements of pattern design. All is grist that comes to his mill. But what if the mill will not grind it? or if it should turn out something not to be kneaded up into consistent pattern-stuff?

That is a matter of taste, it may be objected. Not altogether, I think. Forms which, beautiful and interesting as they may be in themselves, lose their interest in repetition, fail to answer the test by which repeated pattern is fairly judged: does it gain by repetition?

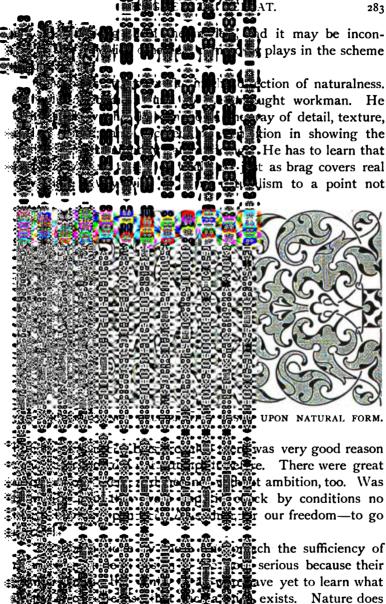
The evidence of satisfactory pattern goes to prove that forms in order to be fit for reiteration must be abstract. The fact alone, therefore, that form is to be continually repeated demands departure from literal transcript in the rendering it.

Nature, however prodigal of repetition, repeats her forms with a difference. The simplest flower that grows may be incomparably more beautiful than any abstract ornament can possibly be. But what of that? If with each successive copy of it there evaporates (as there does) something of the charm which was in the original, until at last the stereotyped repetition of it becomes exasperating, that is surely a very good reason for not degrading it by repetition. It is not as in the case of nature's repetition where no two flowers are quite alike. Our business is to invent forms which shall not lose by repetition.

The very faculty of draughtsmanship (the designer's means of expression) exposes an artist to the temptation of aiming at natural representation. And there is not much in the way of public opinion to keep him in check. Most people are familiar enough with nature to take some interest in natural form, no matter how unsuited it may be to the purpose in hand; whereas, to appreciate in any degree the fitness of ornamental treatment argues some slight understanding of design.

Whoever can draw likes to make a good drawing and to carry it as, far as he can. Drawing, however, is here not the end but only a means to it. The point of all-importance in applied design is the decorative result, the effect of the work in execution and in its place. The designer of repeated ornament is bound, in the interests of his design, to take into account its repetition; which means, if not to create his own forms, at least so to render the forms he borrows from nature as to make them gain by repetition and not lose. A capable workman conforms to decorative conditions not so much because he must as because he sees in their acceptance the surest way to success and to the full expression of himself. He submits therefore with a good grace.

There are yet other reasons for the choice of ornamental forms remote from nature, or for removing them from nature;

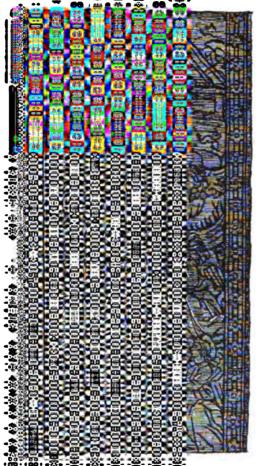


not teach treatment. It is by the study of art, and not of nature, that a man learns to omit the multitudinous details in nature which would attract attention he does not desire to call to them, to emphasise this feature and to subdue that, to modify form and colour according to his purpose.

The ornamentist very often does not even found himself deliberately upon nature (270). He draws his inspiration from nature of course; but he starts continually from the decorative conditions: and it is at their prompting that natural forms occur to his mind. So occurring, he may be sure that they come in appropriately modified form, unconsciously adapted to the purpose in hand. Thus in ancient Greece the vase painter arrived through the use of the brush at the device which we call honeysuckle pattern, and the sculptor came to clothe the joints of his scroll with foliation more or less reminiscent of acanthus leafage. In either case it was art which taught him the secret of design. High priests of nature from Ruskin downwards have omitted to insist upon this point—a vital one to design. They have on the other hand so persistently urged the claims of nature on the artist, and only nature's claims, that, though they may not in so many words have said that nature is enough, that is the impression left by their preaching on the minds of their disciples, who have somehow the infatuation that they can do great things in art without more knowledge of its principles than comes to them by instinct. Art is worth the wooing-and the way to her heart is not by holding on to the apron strings of Mother Nature. But to return to ornament and to repeated ornament in particular. The condition of repetition is imposed on pattern by the necessity of more or less mechanical execution (see Pattern Design, page 3); but, apart from any inducement of manufacture or economy, artists resort to repetition, not merely because the human brain cannot go on inventing without the comparative rest of manual labour, because it is a preventive against loose and rambling ornament, because



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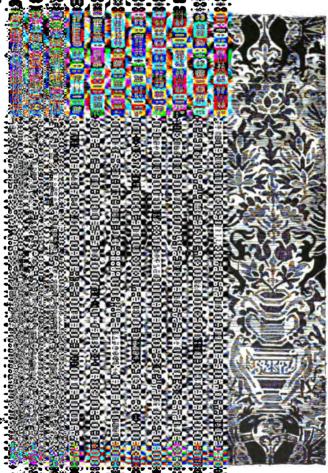


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ERY WALL PATTERN.

strict subjection. It is by no means every artist who can keep them in their place. Where animal forms can be infinitely varied objection to them ceases to hold good. The grotesquerie of Italian arabesque (276) is for the time being out of fashion; but the men of the Renaissance who peopled their scrolls with creatures, or grafted together animal and vegetable forms, did so in such a way as to convince you of their ornamental capacity. The result, pleasing or not to our modern taste, is unmistakeably ornament. You detect as your eye dwells upon the carving, living creatures among its leafage, or the scroll itself grows into fantastic life, the longer you look the more you see in it; but it is first and last ornament, all the more attractive for the fancifulness or the mystery of its detail.

The animal form which makes satisfactory ornament is by men to whom it was easy and more amusing (natural, in fact, for all its artificiality) to play with such form, and who could handle it, and were content to handle it, according to the conditions of design.

Instances of living form so far removed by treatment from their prototype in nature as to be proof against criticism occur in ornament from the days of the Pharaohs to those of Alfred Stevens: and the lesson of it all is, that it should be of the simplest kind, spontaneous, done without effort, suffering no disadvantage from summary treatment. Neither in Greek vase-painting nor in Italian Majolica is accuracy of drawing a characteristic. Grace and spontaneity of brushwork in the one, richness of colour in the other, directness of execution in either case, and the restriction of the painter's effort to what his means will readily give—these are what we find, and what gives them their reputation and us our satisfaction in them as ornament.

XVII. THE POSSIBLE PALETTE.

The restrictions of technique a source of strength—Examples: Clay and pottery colour—Tin enamel—Coloured glazes—Blue and white porcelain—Effect of colourless glaze upon colour—Glass—Its natural colour—Stained glass colour—Dyes and colours—Their use in printing—The natural colour of materials—The quality of the colour medium.

COLOUR is controlled by technique even when it is not prescribed by it. The artist is not nearly such a free agent as he is supposed to be, and the colour schemes which we attribute, without thinking, to the individual or to his racial feeling, arise out of conditions as to which he had no say.

What he has done is to take advantage of them. He is free to drop out of his palette the colours for which he has no artistic use. He cannot add a colour to it—unless by chance he happens to be a chemist also.

That being so, it would seem incumbent on us to urge the man of science to unwearied experiment with a view to increasing our range of colour. It has been done, and the scope of the artist is continually being widened; but not altogether to the benefit of art. The fact is that restrictions to which art has been subject are by no means the hindrance they are taken to be. They have proved a source of strength to the artist—giving character to his work, and a sort of oneness—not so easy to preserve with all the pigments of the artists' colourman to choose from.

Clay is a substance which has a good deal to say as to pottery colour. It burns for the most part to a yellowish, reddish, or grey colour, more rarely to a white. It may be

mixed, or stained with metallic oxides; but the colour of the clay is always felt in the tint so obtained, except where the natural earth is so much alloyed that the vitreous result scarcely deserves to be called clay. And it is not without a moral for us that, for example, very powerfully stained flooring tiles, such as the bright blue, clash horribly with the more sober hues proper to baked earth. These are in themselves harmonious, and make a useful palette, though too low in tone for many purposes.

Brighter colour is to be got in the form of enamel or of glaze, which is really glass, not clay at all. The colour of opaque enamel is determined by its composition. Oxide of tin turns glass a milky white in the fire—and affects the colouring matters mixed with it in much the same way as body white affects oil or water colour. The harsh colour of the Della Robbias was none of their choice, but the best they could do with tin enamel: they would have made their blue like lapis if they could.

In the same way the opacity of enamel is due to tin; and, what is more, the tin contained in brass or bronze clouds the colour. The Chinese enamellers, thanks to their much greater experience, could do things quite beyond the scope of sculptors experimenting in pottery; but they could not get the translucency to be obtained upon gold or silver. The lower tone of Japanese enamel as compared with Chinese is explained by a difference in the composition of the metal foundation.

The most beautiful pottery colour is that produced by more or less transparent glaze over a pale body, and its great charm is in its variety. Potters have done and still do their best to get rid of it; but the colourists among them have made the most of its incidental variety, not only in depth, according to the way it flows, but according to its "flashing" in the fire. They have taken advantage of the flow of the glaze and schemed that one colour should flow

into another, and reckoned on the chemical action of one glaze upon another to get effects of streaked and splashed and curdled colour—deliberately aiming at what was in the first instance pure accident. There is always some uncertainty about pottery colour; but one can rely at least upon the laws of gravitation, of chemistry, and to some extent upon the action of the fire, about which the inexperienced speak so hopelessly always. Where the amateur hopes for a happy fluke the man who knows his trade reckons upon a foreseen effect. He knows quite well what he is aiming at. A potter is working always more or less in the dark. It is not until it comes out of the kiln that he sees the effect of what he has done. But, though he is compelled as it were to fire blindfold, he does not shoot recklessly; and, according to his science and experience, he hits the mark.

Such, however, is the uncertainty of the fire that it is inexpedient to aim at colour depending for its effect upon precise relation of tone or tint. The painters of Sèvres sacrificed to flesh and flower painting qualities peculiar to vitreous colour. The Chinese porcelain painter, his Persian imitator and the Italian Majolica painter, knew better than that.

The beauty of blue and white is beyond dispute whether in Chinese porcelain or in the Persian and Dutch earthenware inspired by it. But blue was not so much the choice of the Chinese potter as the colour forced upon him by his method. Cobalt was the only powerful underglaze colour he could trust to stand the heat of his kiln. The red at his disposal was most likely to come out dull and smoky, the yellow was at best brownish, and the green no stronger than celadon. Even in on-glaze painting blue was the one colour which could be depended upon to sink into the glaze and be held there in suspension, so that one could see into its depths.

When it comes to polychrome on earthenware, the relative warmth of the Italian as compared with the Persian palette

is a matter not of Oriental and European temperament but of the composition of the glaze. The Italians aimed no doubt at Oriental colour, but the lead in their glaze turned the Persian turquoise to a greener shade, destroyed their purple, and developed, what the Persians could not get, brilliant tones of yellow and orange.

It is the same in other crafts. The green and yellow tints of glass, abandoned in favour of colourless "flint," were not the choice of early glassblowers, but the result of impurities in the sand employed in glassmaking. Directly the stained glass window painters discovered the means of staining white glass yellow, the whole tone of their windows was altered to a brighter and gayer key. White glass was accepted as a convention for flesh colour (much to the advantage of the work), because the only flesh tint procurable in potmetal was a rather unpleasant pink.

The dyer was no freer to choose his palette than the potter. William Morris made his own use of the tinctures employed from time immemorial in the East, but added nothing to them. The natural dye-stuffs are rapidly being displaced by the products of synthetic chemistry; but they give quite a different palette. And, when it comes to printing with them, they entail quite different processes, which in turn materially affect the artist's colour scheme. The fresh colour of an Eastern print is not to be got by modern processes of cotton printing—any more than the old-fashioned printer could possibly get the effects produced by some of our methods.

And the colour scheme is affected, too, by the consideration whether it is to be printed by hand or by roller, and whether the printings follow quickly one upon the other or whether there is time for the one to dry before the other falls on to it. Allusion was made on page 50 to discharge printing. That, again, affects the artist's colour scheme. There are only a limited number of dyes—indigo is one—which can

be trusted to discharge with certainty enough. And there is the question of the stuff to be dyed, which may have affinity with one dye-stuff and none with another.

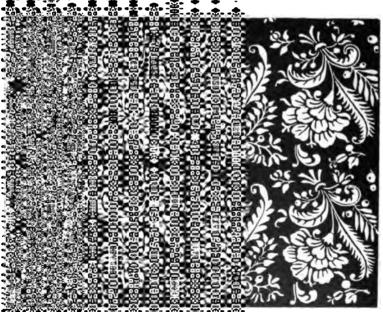
The worker in natural materials has his palette still more rigorously set for him. The marquetry inlayer is confined not merely to natural woods but to woods which will shrink something like equally; the pavement worker to marbles that will wear evenly. It was not purely out of affection for red and green that the Italians in their Opus Alexandrinum kept so faithfully to white marble, serpentine and porphyry.

Workers in distemper, in oil, in fresco, have each their own palette. It is a painter's business, perhaps, to get over that as best he can—his high pictorial purpose is not to be controlled by any such consideration. The purpose of the ornamentist seldom warrants his departure from the palette natural to his material. Its restrictions, if he only knew it, are a blessing in disguise.

XVIII. THE INEVITABLE LINE.

Line and outline in ornament—The quality of line determined by material, &c.—Precision of line essential—A hard line not always to be avoided—Designer accepts the line given him by his material—Examples: Thick lead lines in stained glass—Fine wire in cloisonné—Tooled outline to separate onlays of leather—Couched cord to edge appliqué embroidery—Outline detaches ornament from its background—Makes distant forms read plainly—Strength and colour of outline—Double outline—Hardening and softening effect of outline—Outline not a law but often a matter of expediency.

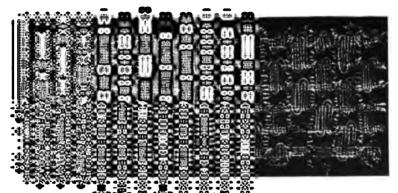
LINE is a subject upon which much has been written and more might well be said—of the meaning that may be put into line, its expression, that is to say, the stillness suggested by horizontal lines (we associate them with the horizon), the support expressed by vertical lines (they remind us of pillars that uphold), the stability of square lines, the life of lines suggesting natural growth, the movement of sinuous and undulating lines. And in close connection with considerations more or less sentimental there is the practical question of the value of line in composition, the way straight lines steady the design and flowing ones enliven it, of the lines resulting in repose or restlessness. to the value of line in ornament there is no possible doubt. Painters may be right or wrong in their new found determination nowhere to find lines in nature. exist there no one with sharp sight will deny, though to defective vision everything may seem blurred. "Pour bien voir," said Carolus Duran, "il faut fermer les yeux!" If The painter. But, in painting, the decomposition of the painter. But, in painting, the decomposition of the painter of the painting, the decomposition of the painter. But, in painting, the decomposition of the painting of the pai











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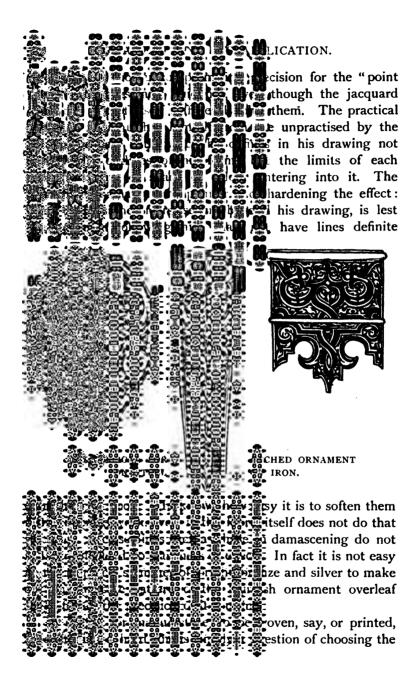
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by another and less sympathetic hand. No one will murder your work so tenderly as yourself.

Sure consolation awaits the designer who has the courage to make his design such as the available workman, and the machine perhaps after him, can render. He will find in the work executed from it, if not the quality sacrificed drawing, in his compensation it may be even more than equivalent. The light shining through stained

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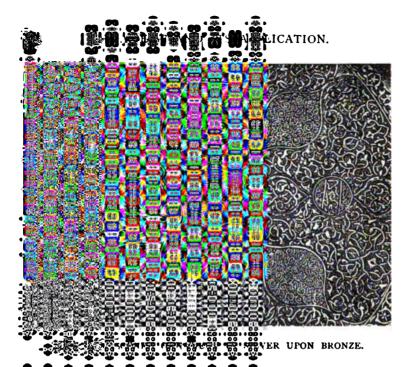




colour—all-important, it is true, but a thing the colourist does, when the time comes, without thinking about it.

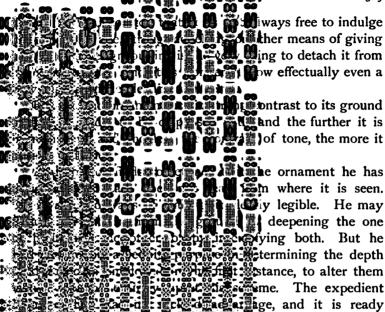
The workmanlike use of a material if not actually the material itself may, as I have said, not only imply the use of an outline but determine its character. A practical man knows that, and, far from being afraid of it, relies upon it for continual help. He reckons with and makes much of the thickness of the lead in his design for glazing, and throws the outlines of his design into them (283), he takes advantage of the fine edge of the flat wire forming cloisons for his enamel. Cloisonné enamel is distinguished from champlevé not only by the fact that the one inveigles the artist into linework and the other makes him chary of it: the wiry quality of the cloisonned line is quite different from a narrow strip of metal left in relief by the cutting away of the ground on either side of it. Moreover the evenness of the cloisonné line justifies itself when we realise that it is in fact the edge of the metal tape used to build up the walls of cells in which vitreous pastes of various colours are confined and kept apart.

Gold tooling makes the best possible outline to painted ornament on leather (284), and when the binder took later to inlaying or onlaying coloured leather, it seemed to be specifically designed to mask the joints. So the embroidress overlays the edges of appliqué with a line of cord, or threads of gold, or strands of soft filoselle, giving perhaps to this last the appearance of beading by the way she allows it to expand between the close-set, tight drawn points of couching; and so the worker in appliqué sews it down with buttonhole or chainstitch (285), each of which has a character of its own. leather-worker, it will be seen, uses a line of chain-stitch for its own sake also, apart from appliqué, and the worker in silver thread (286), depending almost entirely upon line, makes use of the returning outline to get a double line of couching strong enough for the stalk. It will be seen, too, that the turning of the thread gives a rounded line where another



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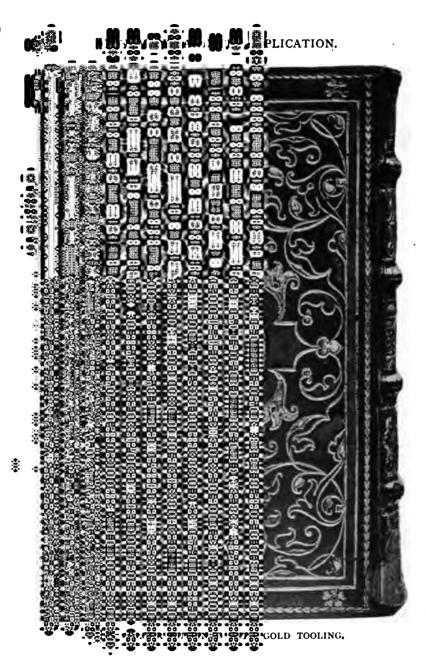




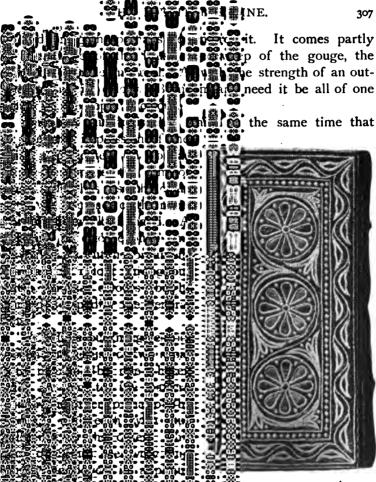
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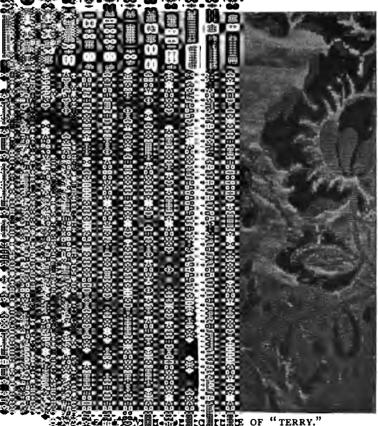
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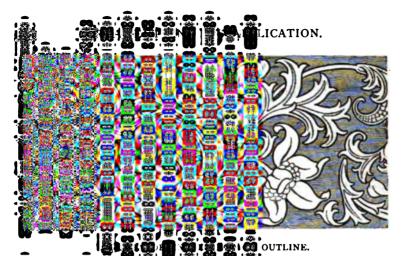


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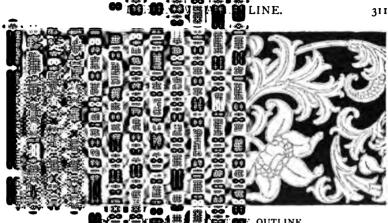
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There we come back to the very nature of design. If it is true, as I began by saying, that, apart from its application, there is properly no such thing as ornament, it follows that, personal as may be the work of its designer, it is still the outcome of conditions, the solution of a problem set by circumstances outside himself. It is his only in so far as he works it out in his own way. He will bring to it what is his to give; but his art is the art of making the best of it.

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